

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XVIII
NUMBER 6

JUNE, 1910

WHOLE
NUMBER 176

THE ACHIEVEMENTS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE¹

J. McKEEN CATTELL
Columbia University

The free elective system, three years of college in preparation for the professional school, personal freedom for the student, these are tenets that Harvard has made familiar to us all. But the pendulum now swings backward. It is already decided that the work of the student is to be concentrated and dispersed by faculty decree; that preparatory schools are to be established for freshmen. We are told that the four-year college course should not be shortened, that "every college graduate ought to be equipped to enter any professional school," and that "the professional schools ought to be so ordered that they are adapted to receive him." "College students are amateurs, not professionals"; they should study "a little of everything," and though each should also have "a firm grasp of some subject," it should lie "outside of his vocation." "The college may be regarded as the last period of play."

The scheme on which the president, fellows, overseers, and faculty of arts and sciences of Harvard University have united has one merit; they announce that it will not be enforced. Compulsory concentration is useless and compulsory dispersion is bad. Neither good students, nor those who do not want to study will

¹ Read at the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association, Harvard University, March, 1910.

be helped. Any such scheme breaks down under the load of its artificiality. The field of knowledge is divided into four divisions for purposes of dispersion, but no faculty can put asunder what God has joined together. According to his interests and needs the student may find his concentration scattered through the four divisions and his dispersion within a single department, as well as the reverse. In my own subject he can find boundless dispersion—witness the fields tilled at Harvard by Professors James, Münsterberg, Royce, Palmer, Santayana, and Yerkes—or he can choose a unified and consistent course by innumerable combinations of studies.

Ten years ago a committee from the Harvard Department of Education made a detailed study of the programs of study of 372 members of the class of 1901. It was concluded that only 7.8 per cent appeared open to the charge of undue specialization, of whom one-third specialized in history and political science preparatory to the study of law. Only $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent seemed to show a lack of proper concentration of energy, and of these one-sixth received the A.B. *magna cum laude*. But circumstances alter cases. We are now told that more than half the students concentrate too much or too little. It is said that only one-seventh of the students graduating from the law school *cum laude* concentrated too little in college, whereas the medical students did not concentrate nearly so much. It is not likely that medical students are inclined to specialize less than law students. The fact is that Harvard College provides the courses in English, history, and political science needed by students of law and does not provide the courses in anatomy, physiology, and pathology needed by students of medicine. Instead of requiring students preparing for the medical school to take courses which they do not want, the college should offer the courses which they need.

The free elective system may be a partial failure; but it is doubtful whether, apart from the professional school, a better plan has been devised. The group system is better in so far as it is a professional school within the college; it is no better as a factory for the manufacture of cultivated gentlemen. Sequences and combinations of studies in the college should be planned

which give adequate preparation for different kinds of work in life, not only for the orthodox and semi-orthodox professions, but also for business and affairs, and for such special performances as those of the Sanskrit scholar, the psychological expert, or the economic entomologist. The courses should be planned by those engaged in these callings, rather than by a college faculty, and they should be elected by the student after proper counsel, rather than forced upon him.

The boy of eighteen or nineteen either should know what he is going to do in life and give part of his time to direct preparation, or he should have a working hypothesis. The professions differ in their demands. Medicine and engineering require manual dexterity and much special information; they should be begun in good season. Law and theology are less exacting of special training; a medical or engineering course would not be a bad preparation for the bar or the church, but the converse is not true. A lawyer who becomes a university president may not unnaturally fancy that the preparation suited to a lawyer would also be fit for the physician or engineer. But when he says:

Many professors of medicine, on the other hand, feel strongly that a student should enter their schools with at least a rudimentary knowledge of those sciences, like chemistry, biology, and physiology, that are interwoven with medical studies; and they appear to attach greater weight to this than to his natural capacity or general attainments,

one wonders where those professors of medicine are who attach greater weight to rudimentary knowledge of certain sciences than to natural capacity, and whether any one holds that natural capacity precludes scientific training or conversely.

The special training of a group or professional course is not its only advantage. An expert Sanskrit scholar is better fitted to become an entomologist than an amateur who has studied a little of everything. Any kind of an apperceptive mass—to use the slang of psychology—is better than none at all. The Columbia College faculty in requiring every freshman to take six or seven studies unrelated to one another and largely unrelated to his past or future studies prescribes a method which not one member of the faculty would be so foolish as to adopt in his own work. The

collective unwisdom of a college faculty is not often exceeded by an individual student. Nor, it may be added, is the skill of a faculty in devising restrictive regulations equal to the ingenuity of the student in dodging them. As Mr. Eliot has recently said, while the word "must" may be heard hereafter more frequently at Cambridge, "I feel a very strong confidence in the ability of the youths that come to Harvard College to take that word with apparent submissiveness, but without allowing it to have any inconvenient effects on the individual."

It is doubtless true that students should not spend four years in electing elementary courses; it is well to persuade them and it may be desirable to compel them to do a certain amount of consistent work in some direction. The problem is largely social rather than educational; it is not serious in the colleges of the great state universities. They have all sorts of programs and curricula; but as a rule the student does his work because it is of concern to him. He has a major subject; he has already begun, or will take up in a year or two, agriculture, medicine, engineering, or some other life-work, and in the meanwhile he is preparing for it. The air of the place is saturated with honest work. If these young men and women are crude, it is because their homes are but a generation from the frontier, not because their work in college is real. They not only learn more, but make more progress in polite manners and broadening interests than do the boys in the colleges of the Atlantic seaboard.

Before the section of education of the American Association for the Advancement of Science a year ago, addresses were made by Professor Royce and Professor Tufts on "The American College and Life," which emphasized the need of giving reality to the work of college students by breaking down the artificial barriers between culture and professional work. Professor Tufts discussed the importance of a "reconstruction of the college ideal of liberal culture . . . by a greater introduction of the vocational element and spirit into college work." Professor Royce said:

Let us seek to assimilate college work more rather than less to that sort and grade of professional work which calls out a young man's energies

just because he feels that in such work something is at stake that is, for him, personally momentous. . . . Let us beware of those theorists who, in the name of what they call the American College, want to sunder afresh what the whole course of our modern American development has wisely tended to join, namely, teaching and investigation, the more technical training and the more general cultivation of our youth, as well as the graduate and the undergraduate types of study. I should abhor the name college if this mere name ever led us into such a backward course as some are now advocating.

Our ideas of culture are inherited, primitive, and conventional. There is a hierarchy of those who wear celluloid collars, those with linen collars, and those with non-detachable collars. Each class looks down on that below it; but scarcely considers what the wearing of a collar symbolizes. He carries a non-detachable collar who believes that American college students must be forced "to study a little of everything, for if not there is no certainty that they will be broadly cultivated." There are various kinds of culture nowadays—microbes propagating in gelatine, turnips with twenty tons of manure to the acre, and boys at Harvard studying a little of everything.

As a matter of fact boys at Harvard may be compelled to take all sorts of courses and even to be coached for examinations on them, but they do not of necessity study at all. They react normally to the futility of the scheme. There are many kinds of boys in a college community: grinds and sports, scholars and entrepreneurs. One difficulty is that they divide themselves into social cliques when they ought to mix, and are mixed in the courses when they ought to be grouped with reference to their abilities, interests, and future work.

The years from eighteen to twenty-five are precious beyond all measure. A boy of eighteen is the rawest of material; within seven years the pig-iron must become steel and the blade must get its finest edge or it will never cut deep. But we bookmen must remember that words and books and scholarship are not the only things in the world. The pen may be mightier than the sword, but it is feeble beside the workman's tool. An Achilles who has no Homer is not therefore less great. We who talk and write have undue opportunity to exploit our own trade. If we expect others to respect our scholarship, we should in turn honor

their performance. The fundamental fault of our whole educational system is that we try to train to superficial scholarship and conventional culture those who should be learning to do their share of the world's work.

The traditions of scholarship attaching to the college are indeed somewhat threadbare. From the monastery, by way of Oxford and Cambridge, came the American College. So long as it was controlled by the clergy for the education of the clergy and the church was a real part of the life of the people, the college was vital, as are today the schools of medicine, engineering, and law. When intending lawyers and teachers—concerned like the clergymen with words, books, and traditions—became a large element among college students the scholastic curriculum was not inept. Six or eight years' study of the elements of the classical languages—scarcely ever reaching so far as reading them with ease or writing them with correctness—did not accomplish so very much in the way of broadening interests and enlarging sympathies, but it gave a good drill and a common stock of knowledge and quotations, which made for the social homogeneity of a class. Poetry and art have so completely based themselves on the classical and biblical traditions that they are in danger of waning together.

Science has in the course of the past century caused a revolution in human life. Its applications have made democracy and universal education possible by enabling one man to do what formerly required ten. Science has created new professions and has at the same time provided the economic conditions which permit large numbers to follow them and to undergo a long period of unproductive apprenticeship. The same economic conditions have permitted the wealthy and potentially idle classes to increase to a vast horde largely lacking the traditions of an aristocracy. The lower death-rate due to science is followed by a lower birth-rate. Women partly freed from manual work and childbearing can be idle, go to college, or engage in sedentary occupations. Then science has directly reformed our educational system by the new material which it has supplied and by the new method which it has made supreme.

The English and American colleges have but partially and imperfectly adjusted themselves to this new life. The ghost of the obsolescent scholastic system still hovers about the place; it is still haunted by the phantom of the gentleman who hunts over his country estate and drinks two bottles of wine for dinner, but whose son may become a curate or the proconsul of an empire. Oxford and Cambridge have, as a matter of fact, more nearly fitted themselves to the conditions of British society than have our seaboard colleges to American democracy. The B.A. may mean little more than a public-school education and three six months of residence at the university, but the young men have on the whole a high sense of honor and duty, of traditions to be maintained. In addition to the poll men, there are honor courses at the universities which are strictly special and professional—preparatory to medicine, law, politics, etc., or giving expert training in subjects such as the biological sciences or the classics. A student may devote three years to exclusive and intensive work in mathematics; and the training has proved excellent, having produced not only many of the ablest mathematicians of the last century, but great men in all departments of activity. The English system of public schools and scholarships selects for the universities a large share of the ablest and most earnest young men of the country; Oxford and Cambridge have continuously sent forth their men to lead the nation. None the less it is true that in numbers, in resources, and in educational methods they have remained nearly stationary, while the great movement in higher education in England has been the establishment and growth of the metropolitan and provincial universities. These are essentially trade schools, similar to our own state universities, and having but little in common with our country clubs of the North Atlantic states.

It is not desirable to support at public expense certain country clubs or detention hospitals in which rich boys may be segregated. The idle rich and the lazy poor we have with us always and everywhere. Colleges only contribute their share to the failure to solve a problem at present insoluble. It may be that these rich boys cost society more than they are worth; it may be that

their value is a minus quantity. They will, however, occupy a far more important place in society than others. From the vast numbers born in the cottage, there are a few who grasp "the skirts of happy chance" and live to shape a "state's decrees," but in the main those who eat at the high table of the palace are born there or in its dependencies. Thanks to heredity and opportunity combined, there are more dominant personalities, such as Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, Mr. Pierpont Morgan, and Mr. Lawrence Lowell, from this small upper class than from the working millions. Whether or not we should be better off without such men is not the question. Until opportunity can be equalized we shall have them; the college must bear its share of responsibility for what they do in the world.

These rich boys are as a rule nice boys and many of them will become leaders in their own class and in the community. The luxury to which they are inured at home does not especially hurt them in college. The difficulty is twofold—they set false standards for the boys who are not rich and they do not themselves profit greatly from their college work and life. The college community is more democratic than any other; but as an institution increases in size sets are formed, and the rich are segregated in dormitories, clubs, and fraternities. They enjoy the social life which the idle classes maintain after reaching years of discretion, and are turned in that direction rather than to ideas of useful work and service. They do not see the use of the college courses, but study as little and pay their coaches as much as may be necessary to pass examinations. The president of a large college told me that he could not consider a certain man in connection with the chair of philosophy, because he was said to have leanings toward socialism and there was too much of that kind of thing among the students already. As a matter of fact, this president probably had his eyes on his trustees rather than on his students, and there is altogether too little enthusiasm for ideal ends—wise or foolish—among our college students. On the continent they are the radicals and revolutionaries; here they are too often the premature club men.

A class endowed by the public can only be tolerated if it

performs public services. Assuming that the class will last for a time, how can it be taught its responsibilities? Not surely by the Harvard plan of studying a little of everything, but nothing concerned with work in life. Even professional football is better than amateur scholarship. Your true lover is no amateur, but a professional in deadly earnest. Each boy at Harvard, rich or poor, should have some end to which he devotes himself. Those who do not care for scholarship should be given a chance to become interested in business or politics or social affairs, or else the university should be closed to them. But many will become absorbed in scholarly work if given a chance, and this can best be offered by letting them do serious work in some direction and leading them to associate with those already interested in such work.

The plan just now adopted at Harvard of establishing residence halls for freshmen traverses all that I have written. Groups of the most immature students, likely to be classified by the amount they are prepared to pay for rooms and board and the schools from which they come, will be segregated, required to study a little of everything under the supervision of celibate masters, and told that they are entering on a "period of play." If, as is said, "the change from the life of school to that of college is too abrupt at the present day," then let us make the schoolboy more of a man, not the college student less of a man. The groups in college should be formed on a plan exactly the opposite of that proposed, social, local, and age distinctions being ignored, and the main grouping being in accordance with the aptitudes and life-interests of the students. The ideal is the zoölogical hall of the old Harvard, where apprentices of a great man and a great teacher lived together. This is told of again in the charming autobiography of Shaler. A boy from the aristocratic southern classes, with ample means and good abilities, but no fixed interests, fell into this group. There he discovered his life-work and pursued it with boundless enthusiasm. Nor did the fact that he devoted himself exclusively to professional work in natural history in college prevent him from writing Elizabethan plays in his old age. The number of men of distinc-

tion given to the world from this small Agassiz group is truly remarkable.

The president of Harvard tells us that the engineering student "labors without a groan on mathematics, which most college undergraduates shun like a pestilence," and most curiously he holds that the engineering student gets no culture from his mathematics, while the college student does, and must by force be exposed to the pestilence he shuns unless he chooses philosophy as the milder disease. If culture is "a little knowledge of everything" and "those things which ordinarily educated men around a dinner table are expected to know"—to quote again—it has little more real significance than the white shirts and black coats of these gentlemen. But surely the intangible trait that we should like to strengthen by our education is almost the reverse of this—something that makes the white shirts and gossip of the dinner table insignificant, seen at times in primitive peoples, in sea-faring and farming folk, in hereditary nobles, in scholars—a certain detachment from the here and now and the narrower self, the quality of greatness in a man. This is almost unconcerned with any kind of information, but to a limited degree comes from mastery in one's own field, from historical perspective, from appreciation of the forces of nature.

There are three things that the university would do—represented by the college, the professional schools, and the graduate faculty. Through the college it would give men broader interests and wider sympathies, through the professional schools it would teach the routine methods of practice, through the graduate faculty it would improve these methods and enlarge our knowledge. But while the partial separation of these three objects in the university has a historical explanation, it has no real justification. Every child and every man should unite continuously in his education and in his life what the university artificially separates—he should always be doing and learning to do his share of the world's work, he should try continuously to improve the methods of doing it, and he should learn to appreciate the work of others.

In our actual courses we cannot do much more than teach

efficient methods of routine work. The student can learn to do something in particular, not things in general. Hence our professional schools are on the whole more successful than our colleges or our graduate faculties. Routine research and routine scholarship can be taught in the graduate faculty, which is at present essentially a professional school for university teachers. For original research and productive scholarship we must wait for the man, or possibly search for him, give him a chance, and let him alone. But we should welcome him and give him opportunity in whatever department of the university he may be found. The right way to give a man interests that are broad and permanent is not to put him in elementary courses in all sorts of subjects, but to encourage him to learn to do well his work in life and to connect with this by natural associations the larger world in which he may live. Fortunately no president and no university can confine culture to the college, professional work to the professional school, and research work to the graduate school. Each will be found everywhere according to the measure of those who teach and those who learn.

The courses intended to impart "a little knowledge of everything" should, we are informed, be lecture courses by the leading men in the department, supplemented by drill from subordinates. In my opinion this is exactly the wrong use of lecture courses. Books and small classes should be used for elementary instruction. Lectures may be needed for special work not to be found in books and are useful as emotional exercises. When used for the latter purpose, the student should not be quizzed or examined on them, but can properly be credited toward his degree for the number of hours he sits in the lecture-room.

Futile and somewhat anti-moral is the plan proposed of trying to improve scholarship by persuading students to compete for class rank. We are told that "the free elective system in college has reduced the spirit of competition in scholarship to a minimum," and that "there is a close analogy between outdoor sports and those indoor studies which are pursued for intellectual development, especially in regard to the question of stimulus by competition." As a matter of fact, men pull together in a boat

for the glory of their college; the man who plays for his own oar or hand is not esteemed there or elsewhere. There is some excuse for the student's opinion that "C" is the gentleman's grade. To try to make dull and profitless work interesting by competition puts the smell before the automobile.

This does not mean that competition is not a factor of immense importance in life; or that it is out of place in the university. When the best men graduating from the medical school receive the hospital appointments, and the best men in the engineering school find big jobs waiting for them, it is a powerful stimulus to good work. When the first and second wranglers at Cambridge have been assured of fellowships which may be worth \$50,000, the attainment has been eagerly sought and highly honored. It should be noted, however, that Cambridge has this year abandoned the ranking in the mathematical tripos, because it was regarded as on the whole injurious to scholarship. If the men who do the best scholarly work in college are properly rewarded for it during their course, on graduation, and in after-life, their scholarship will be respected even by those who are not scholars.

A proper way to encourage students to do good work is to credit them for the quality of their work as well as for the number of hours of class work which they attend. The Harvard plan of letting the same number of courses be taken either in three or in four years does not accomplish this. The student may do work of the same amount and quality in a year whether he attends ten or thirty hours of class work. But if the points for the degree are weighted as well as counted the able student or the diligent student will make more rapid progress. If he can do in two or three years the work for which the poorer student requires four years, there is no reason why he should not go forward to the professional or graduate school. It would also be just and a proper stimulus to let good students pay lower and poor students higher fees in proportion to the quality of their work. The good students who profit themselves and contribute to a better spirit in the institution should receive a larger part of the subsidy contributed for college education, while the stu-

dents who learn but little and may be a public nuisance should not be supported at college at public expense.

But the best reward for scholarly work is adequate recognition of the work as preparation for a career in life. At Columbia University a man takes his Doctor's degree at the average age of 27 years. He is fortunate if he receives immediately an instructorship at \$1,000 a year; the increments of salary are \$100 a year for ten years, so that at the age of 37 he receives a salary of \$2,000. In a commercial community the imagination is not stirred by such figures. The university is a parasite on the scholarly impulse instead of a stimulus to it.

The first need of our universities and colleges is great men for teachers. In order that the best men may be drawn to the academic career, it must be attractive and honorable. The professorship was inherited by us as a high office which is now being lowered. Professors and scholars are not sufficiently free or sufficiently well paid, so there is a lack of men who deserve to be highly rewarded, and we are in danger of sliding down the lines of a vicious spiral, until we reach the stage where the professor and his scholarship are not respected because they are not respectable.

I should myself prefer to see the salaries, earnings, and conveyings of others cut down rather than to have the salaries of professors greatly increased. When a criminal lawyer—to use the more inclusive term for corporation lawyer—receives a single fee of \$800,000, our civilization is obviously complicated. Every professor who is as able as this lawyer and who does work more important for society cannot be paid a million dollars a year. But neither is it necessary to pay him so little that he cannot do his work or educate his children. I recently excused myself somewhat awkwardly for not greeting promptly the wife of a colleague by saying that men could not be expected to recognize women because they changed their frocks. She replied: "The wives of professors don't." It is better to have wit than frocks; but in the long run they are likely to be found together. The first step of a really great university presi-

dent would be to refuse to accept a larger salary than is paid to the professors.

The second step would be to make himself responsible to the faculty instead of holding each professor responsible to him. The bureaucratic or department-store system of university control is the disease which is now serious and may become fatal. This subjection of the individual to the machinery of administration and to the rack wage, is but an invasion of the university by methods in business and in politics from which the whole country suffers. We may hope that it is only a temporary incident in the growth of material complexity beyond the powers of moral and intellectual control, and that man may soon regain his seat in the saddle. Certainly Harvard has led the way. It has adopted a scale of salaries independent of superficial supply and demand, and has placed them outside the influence of intrigue and favoritism. The bureaucratic system is less dominant than elsewhere. And it has its reward; for I find in an objective study of the distribution of the scientific men of the country that no less than one-fifth of those most eminent are here.

It has been said more than once that the college is in danger of being crushed between the upper millstone of the professional school and the nether millstone of the secondary school; those who have used this simile do not appear to realize that this is the way fine flour is made. The trouble with our educational system is that the college has not only exploited its frivolous amateurism and its futile scholasticism at home, but it has imposed them on the high school and even on the grades. When we have high schools fit for the people and professional schools of the right sort, the colleges will be molded into proper shape.

President Lowell closed his inaugural address with the words:

It is said that if the temperature of the ocean were raised the water would expand until the floods covered the dry land; and if we can increase the intellectual ambition of college students the whole face of the country will be changed. When the young men shall see visions, the dreams of old men will come true.

If the temperature of the ocean were raised sufficiently, Cambridge and its university would be submerged, while the great

continent with its state universities would stand untouched. But if the intellectual ambition is sound and the visions are sane, Harvard College can be saved.

I trust that I have not exceeded the privileges proper to a guest or the freedom allowed by an after-dinner address. Those men and those institutions which are too great for compliment are still subject to honest criticism. It would be impertinent for me to praise Harvard University and its leaders. Harvard stands apart from and above all our other universities, secure in its past and in its future, one of the great contributions made by America to the civilization of the world.

THE ACHIEVEMENTS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE¹

DAVID SNEDDEN

State Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts

Before we can discuss the achievements and shortcomings of the American college, it is desirable to indicate the point of view and the standards by which the college is to be judged. The college of liberal arts, as distinguished from graduate and professional schools, is here to be considered. The mission of the college may be profitably considered under three main heads.

1. It is the primary function of the college to be a center of higher learning and lofty ideals. To this end it must assemble the material equipment and the scholarly men necessary for the higher learning and the propagation of the better social influences. It not only assembles these, but by original research and creative effort it contributes to their development.

2. The second important function of the college is to transmit to potential learners as effectively and economically as possible that learning and those ideals which have a genuine significance for the community life of the present or the future.

3. It is also the duty of the college to enlarge the range of its influence, to contribute of its treasures, not only to those who enter its gates, but to those who cannot, or are not yet disposed to, come under its influence. In other words, the college must interact on society by bringing itself into intimate and vital contact with the life of the times.

If, now, we seek to judge the work of the college from these three standpoints, it would seem that in the first field the college has been largely successful, in the other two less so. It will be recalled that the mediaeval university was essentially the gathering place of scholars and those inclined to scholarship.

¹ Read at the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Harvard Teachers' Association, Harvard University, March, 1910.

The American college similarly from the beginning has been an institution which has been successful in gathering together the equipment and men that could support and contribute to the higher learning. It has achieved popularity; it has become the center of an active and powerful, if not always wholesome, social life; and it has broadened its curriculum so as to open many doors to the aspiring student. Under the second head we note that it has made some advances in correlating its work with certain kinds of vocational preparation (especially for the professions); while in respect to the third division it has, within limits, done some conscious work in preparation for citizenship.

In 1889-90 there was reported to the National Bureau of Education the presence in American colleges of 44,900 men and 10,700 women students. In 1907-8 this number had increased to 101,200 men and 52,600 women, distributed in 573 institutions avowedly doing college work. To these students were granted in that year over 20,800 degrees, of which the women alone received 6,800. Of these institutions 464 had an income of over \$66,000,000, of which the national government contributed \$4,500,000, the states and municipalities over \$15,000,000, and gifts \$14,000,000. The rest came from fees, and from productive funds, the evidence of past or present esteem. Those who have followed the marvelous growth of western state institutions must realize what a hold these have on the citizenship of their respective commonwealths. In many states of the Union the college has become as vital and necessary a part of a system of free public schools as the high school or primary school. It is not here alleged that this popularity of the college is to be accepted as proof that it is satisfactorily attaining the social aims set for it, but it certainly is evidence that the college occupies an influential place in the corporate life of our people. It is not impossible, indeed, that the severe criticism to which the college is now being subjected is in part the outcome of this very esteem in which it is held by the public. "Whom the Lord loveth, he chasteneth."

Related to this public esteem is the fact that the college has achieved in increasing measure an enriched social life. How far

this development is indigenous to the student body need not here be discussed. In spite of certain excesses and mal-developments it nevertheless remains true that for the average American youth the college provides a splendid social environment, in which flourish several of the social qualities that make for enjoyment and some kinds of social efficiency later. There is almost as much wisdom as irony in the mandate sometimes given to the college student, not to let his studies interfere with his college life. It must be confessed that we have yet made no adequate analysis of the social side of education or of the means to its realization; but in spite of this, the American college, perhaps largely through the efforts of its own students, has produced a rich and valuable social life, whose abuses I believe to be not inherent, but merely the consequence of lack of intelligent regulation of administration.

In the third place, it must be held as a distinct achievement of the American college that it has so widened its curriculum and so beaten back the old system of narrow restrictions as to make of it a more democratic institution and one more in harmony with the spirit of the twentieth century. In spite of our sometimes shortsighted criticisms of the elective system, it must nevertheless remain true that a twentieth-century institution of higher learning must open a large number of doors to the student. The American college has been forced to recognize that the mediaeval conception of learning as something for an aristocracy is not to be tolerated. The antiquated disposition to insist that this or that language, this or that science, or this or the other line of study in history or art is essential to a liberal education, has happily been banished to the limbo of the various other kinds of intolerance.

The fourth achievement of the American college is its growing capacity to co-ordinate its work with that of the professional school. In time we may expect that the sharp dividing line which has often existed between liberal and professional education will be removed and that the student will be able so to adjust his course that his liberal studies will contribute something to a professional foundation and at the same time that he will be

induced to spend a longer time in the atmosphere of liberal education.

We may note, finally, that in some degree the college has achieved results in conscious preparation for citizenship. It is true, of course, that the friends of the college have always put this forward as one of its controlling aims, but the critic has not been able to discern in the college work distinct means to its realization. No one could deny that many college teachers, and perhaps even more those of a former than of the present generation, have been very active factors through their personalities in producing the higher civic ideals. But it may be questioned as to how the traditional studies themselves contributed to the ends of citizenship. What is evident in the college of today is that a variety of the newer courses in economics, civics, history, and sociology, are almost controlled by their purposes of functional expression in contemporary life. When we add to these a variety of quasi-collegiate activities fostered by individual effort it may be acknowledged that we have the beginnings of some genuine social or civic education. It need not be mentioned here that certain women's colleges have conspicuously succeeded in this direction. It is also well within the knowledge of all that in a number of state universities and in non-public institutions in the East obvious results in this field are a matter of recent growth. While one hopes and believes that these are but the foreshadowings of much more important developments in the near future, in view of their importance we should even now put them down as among the distinctive achievements of the American college.

If, now, we turn from an enumeration of the achievements of the American college to consider its shortcomings, we shall be obliged to define these in terms of the demands and possibilities of twentieth-century democracy. We shall have to remember that our modern life is complicated along economic and social lines; that the age is one of transition; that the popular will is in the ascendent; that political democracy is slowly but certainly producing social and economic democracy. We shall have to remind ourselves that obvious efficiency, whether in cul-

tural or practical lines, is more and more demanded of educational efforts and that efficiency which is not accompanied by economy of effort is less and less admired. The agencies which can influence this modern social life must have an integral relation with it. There is no place in modern life for the palace of art on the hilltop. The man who is to teach those who are to go into active life must in some measure himself have been a learner from that active life. The institution which desires that its work shall be effective must constantly go to the world for contact with reality and must follow the results of its work into the world.

In the light of these considerations it would seem that the American college has yet measurably failed to realize its possibilities in the last two divisions given at the outset. On the one hand, it has continued to lack a scientific pedagogy or teaching-art by which it could be assured of efficiency and economy of effort. This lack of pedagogic insight has deprived it of proper criteria of educational values; has caused it to adhere to methods and procedures based on traditional subjects which have no functional value in modern life; and has rendered it impotent to develop a new methodology and administration suited to subjects which have contemporaneous cultural significance. On the other hand, the college has preserved a certain isolation from community life. This isolation has deprived it of the ability to enlarge its sphere of usefulness; has made its professors men of academic mind somewhat out of touch with the requirements and possibilities of modern culture; it has led to the notion that culture is something remote from the currents of present activity and something that is vulgarized by contact with them. The college has figured insufficiently as a force in political life and has even lent strength by its attitude to the notion that politics is an unclean trade which the refined and gentle-minded must avoid. But the isolation of the college and its indisposition to interact on contemporary life has been most harmful in its relations to the democratic movement for public education. So situated as to be in practical command of the standards of secondary education, it has greatly narrowed and formalized these

by its direct control through the imposed curricula and by its indirect control through the training of teachers for these schools. These general charges may be considered more in detail.

Pedagogy is the art of so presenting subject-matter that effectiveness and economy follow in the learning-process. Effectiveness and economy in this connection imply also that what is learned shall actually function in the results aimed at. Learning is not an end in itself, but a means to the realization of vital social and personal ends. Judged by this definition, it can hardly be said that the American college instructor has yet begun to think about the pedagogical art, or rather his thinking is so fragmentary and unorganized a process as to lead to little genuine advance. It is true that there have always been and can still be found great and effective teachers in the colleges; but these have been men of exceptional natural capacities, gifted with teaching-powers far beyond those of the average man. The college seeks these rare teachers who are strong in native ability, but has not learned the art of producing them. Furthermore, these exceptional men, strong in their intuitive powers, have had little capacity to impart the secrets of their success to their would-be disciples. It is more accurate to say, perhaps, that the study of the art of college teaching has centered in subject-matter rather than in the learning-processes of those taught. Traditionally the college may have aimed to be only an open door to learning; but, in fact, the youths who frequent such institutions have sought teachers no less than other opportunities of learning, and it is certainly true that effective teaching multiplies those who seek it and greatly enhances the social serviceableness of education. So far the college has produced almost no literature on the pedagogic art, viewed from the subjective standpoint. Very few studies, long or short, have been produced which could guide the novice in becoming an effective teacher of young people. As yet few researches in psychology serve to give us light. The college instructor has been loath to submit the results of his work to scientific test. He has often refused to assume any responsibility for the outcome of his work in the students who have passed through his classes. Not infrequently

it is a matter of indifference to him whether or not the education he gives actually functions in the culture, civic sense, or vocational power which is implied in the college announcement. It is perhaps true that this situation tends to grow worse in proportion as the old type of college teacher disappears and he is replaced by the specialist, whose interests are still bound up in subject-matter. So widespread is this condition that we must regard it as institutional rather than individual. The dean of one of our strong colleges recently published a complaint that the training of specialists and men for research is drying up the springs of genuine college teaching; and Professor Ganong has in a recent issue of *Science* asserted the same thing. It has been quite possible for this development to come about unnoticed because of the absence of any conscious standards of the art of teaching among college instructors.

It is not here asserted, of course, that in any field of education we have a well-developed pedagogy. Far from it. But we shall make little progress in developing such a field, until we have a body of people who believe that a genuine pedagogy is possible, and who are striving toward its realization. In other departments of education than the collegiate there is at the present time a widespread belief in the existence of such a pedagogy, and, however imperfectly, there are those who are striving to realize it. In the college, the prevailing attitude toward pedagogy has usually been one of contempt. This is conspicuous in the case of young instructors, whose attitude toward their students is that of the "take-it-or-leave-it" kind. Among these younger professors there is general agreement that it is not possible, by study and concerted attention to the problems of teaching, as distinguished from the problems of scientifically and logically organizing subject-matter, to establish principles that would be helpful to college education generally. Psychology, applied to the processes of instruction and training, is yet unexplored territory to them, and has the further disadvantage of being believed to be a utopia.

Apart from its influence on processes of college education, the absence of a philosophy of pedagogy in the college has reacted

most disastrously on the schools below. Because of their strategic position, the colleges have been able to dictate the standards and to control in large measure the administration of secondary education. Their sway in this field has been to a large extent unintelligent and exasperating, though entirely well meant. They have imposed standards that have been generally regarded by students of secondary education, who possess some pedagogic insight, as narrow, irrational, and unfruitful. These standards have often been highly elaborated from the standpoint of subject-matter, but one is tempted to say that in proportion as this has been the case, they have exhibited lack of understanding of the nature of adolescence and the social significance of a genuine secondary education.

It is not easy, and certainly seems ungracious, to make accusations of pedagogical shortcomings against the college in this connection, because so many of its efforts have been well intended. It has undoubtedly sought to promote scholarship in the lower schools, it has tried to raise the standards of teaching, and it has aimed to impose better books and better laboratory requirements upon the reluctant administrators of the secondary schools. In so far as it has failed to achieve valuable results—and the amount of testimony that it has so failed is enormous—it has fallen short because of its disbelief in the utility of studying the needs, capacities, and social environment of those who are being educated. If in recent years we have witnessed some attempts at improvement, these are rather to be attributed to public demand than to any growing disposition on the part of the college itself to study these, its legitimate problems. Slowly the college is modifying its admission requirements along rational lines; slowly it is building up special departments of pedagogy; but in neither case can the friends of the college detect a co-operative attitude on the part of the faculties themselves. More commonly they seem to have responded grudgingly to a demand forced upon them from outside.

This lack of pedagogic insight on the part of the colleges manifests itself in still another direction. Historically, the chief single function of the American college, so far as practical occu-

pations are concerned, has been the preparation of teachers. More of its graduates have gone into this than into any other field. The college has undoubtedly taken pleasure in this outcome of its work and has developed a variety of agencies to facilitate the passage of its graduates into the secondary schools. But in spite of all this, it has quite persistently refused to give to these prospective workers something of the added professional training which would better equip them for their work. Until recently it could be said that the college refused to recognize that teaching in the secondary schools was a profession, in spite of the fact that its graduates were so often making of it a career. The public has been obliged to accept the graduates, giving them responsible work in the public schools, only to find that their preparation was so incomplete as to entail a large waste in the early stages of their apprenticeship.

It is not here contended, of course, that the college should be a vocational rather than a liberal-arts school; but the fact has been that, for a large proportion of its students, the college has long been in fact a professional school, but persistently refusing to complete the final stages of its professional preparation. Just now it is feared in some quarters that the development of teachers' colleges will impair the departments of liberal arts. This can hardly happen if these departments have a wise pedagogy and are ministering to general social needs. It is not inconceivable that teachers' colleges may make of the liberal-arts subjects studies which will function so much more effectively that students will elect them in preference to those organized along traditional lines.

The second main head under which we must enumerate the shortcomings of the college is that which has reference to the integration of that institution with community and national life. It is an interesting fact in social evolution that those institutions, religious, political, or educational, a large part of whose function is the conservation and transmission of the social inheritance, tend periodically to become static and to become detached from the currents of social life in which they find themselves. It would seem that after periods of social unrest the demand for

conservation and reinterpretation of the social inheritance is so great as to practically polarize the activities of religious, political, and social leaders. They seek to store, to preserve, to rearrange, and to make attractive the experience of the past, but ere long they find themselves out of the current of life and indisposed to work back into it. From one point of view this preservative function would seem to be as simple as it is valuable. The world must have custodians of its wealth of ancient culture and customs. At any time the treasure-house should be open and guides available. Society is largely made up of those who by preference or necessity press forward and who rarely take account of accumulated wisdom. The college has specialized as one institution assuming to guard and make available the social inheritance.

But in these conserving institutions there seems to be a strong and often fatal tendency to make of a means an end. Treasures may not be merely stored; they must be used. The wisdom of the past must function in the present if it is to be really worth the while. He who conserves must also see that what he holds shall be made available. To cause the social inheritance to fulfil its appointed part in the activities of the age is an art in itself. As an institution, the college tends perennially, like many other institutions, to fail to attend to the functioning side of its performance. It welcomes worshipers to its cathedrals, but neglects to study the art of preaching, and grows indolent where missionary enterprise is involved. Only by very great effort can college faculties keep themselves in touch with the enviroing social life. History abounds with examples of those that have failed in this way. In the American college, even in the newer departments, which in their order have been those of physical science, biological science, and social science, there has been a growing tendency on the part of the younger generation of instructors to spend their time working over and rearranging their inherited treasures, rather than in bringing them into circulation in the marts of the present.

If the college once accepts the general notion that only by the most strenuous effort and only by constant self-examination

can it keep itself in contact with modern life, we shall hear less of the conservatism and lack of vitality of that institution. This result has been achieved in certain religious movements; it is not at all impossible to college faculties. One very suggestive reason why the professional schools of the time evolve faster and seem to possess greater vitality is due to their necessity of constantly squaring up with the practical demands of the age in which they find themselves. Unfortunately we have no such searching means of testing the cultural and civic output of our colleges. We often know that their faculties are out of touch with life, that their students follow their studies perfunctorily, that their professors cannot speak to the public, and that their influence on democracy is slight. Nevertheless, the college is favored by the popular mysticism as to higher learning. Its remoteness becomes, temporarily at least, a source of strength rather than a weakness. Only after a considerable time, when the current has long swept by, does the college find itself in need of extensive readjustment. It would seem that the American college is even now entering on such a dynamic period and that within the next few years criticism and a wide range of constructive measures will be found available.

The college will perform its full mission to society only when it adds to its primitive function of being a museum and shrine of learning, its modern responsibilities of evolving a teaching-art and of deliberately seeking to keep itself in such immediate relations with the great currents of the time that it can react helpfully on them.

THE FIFTH ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL ESPERANTO CONGRESS

*To the Commissioner of Education of the United States, Wash-
ington, D.C.*

SIR: We beg to submit the following report:

The Fifth Annual International Esperanto Congress, at which Congress we had the honor of representing the United States Government, was held in Barcelona, Spain, the meetings extending from September 5 to 11, 1909.

In spite of the recent disturbances in that city, which are said to have prevented the attendance of many foreigners who had intended to be present, about 1,300 Esperantists came together from all parts of Europe and some portions of Asia, Africa, South America, and the United States. The fact that the king of Spain accepted the honorary presidency of the Congress, and that the various heads of departments, the governor of the province, and the mayor of the city were on the list of patrons, made it almost a governmental affair. Before the formal opening of the Congress, the Spanish governor and captain-general, the president of the Chamber of Deputies and the mayor of Barcelona, held formal receptions for Dr. Zamenhof (the creator of the language) and the chief Esperanto officials, including the one of your representatives who was in the city at the time, and at the end of the week the whole Congress was lavishly and magnificently entertained by the municipal government. Not only the city officials, but the people on the streets, were very cordial in their reception of the visitors. It was reported that there are 3,000 Esperantists resident in Barcelona.

There was every indication that this movement has gone beyond the period when it could be called a "fad," has passed through the stages of ridicule and of active opposition, and is today something to be seriously considered.

It appears to number more adherents, publishes more periodicals and more books, has held more international congresses, has been officially adopted by more numerous and more important international associations and conventions, is officially taught in more public and commercial schools, and in general seems to have been successful much longer, than any other proposed international language has ever been, having shown a steady and substantial growth during the last twenty years.

Germany and the United States have been slower to show an interest in Esperanto than any other important nation, but today Germany ranks with Great Britain in the extent to which the language is used to increase its foreign commerce, and the number of organized societies in Germany has risen from 2 in 1903 to 179 in 1909. In the city of Dresden alone are twenty-four groups, the largest numbering 484 members, and 160 business houses in that city are using the language in their correspondence and advertising. In the United States the number of organized societies has increased in four years from none to 144, besides many students of the language who have not organized into societies. These figures seem to indicate a widespread demand for some international means of communication; a demand which, in the opinion of your representatives, Esperanto is very well calculated to meet.

A practical illustration of the adaptability of the language was given in the Red Cross demonstration at Barcelona during the Congress. A section of one of the city parks was taken to represent a battlefield, on which were a company of Red Cross surgeons and nurses, mostly French and Spanish, and a detachment of Spanish soldiers as helpers. Scattered over the field were "wounded" from various countries, who understood neither Spanish nor French, apparently suffering from all possible wounds and ailments. These were brought in and given all necessary treatment, all conversation being, of course, in Esperanto. The soldier helpers had been studying Esperanto but a few days, and had probably learned only the phrases required in that particular service, but the whole affair was a striking proof of the practical nature of the language. (See also report

of Major P. F. Straub in the *Army and Navy Register* of January 16, 1909.)

Perhaps the deepest impression received in attendance upon the Congress is that the rapid increase in the knowledge of Esperanto throughout the civilized world, and the numerous practical uses to which it has already been applied, indicate not only the feasibility, but the importance of systematic instruction in the language in our public schools.

It has been officially introduced into many public and commercial schools in Great Britain, France, and Germany, and to some extent in other European countries. So important an organization as the London Chamber of Commerce has for several years held Esperanto examinations for both junior and senior certificates and for teachers' diplomas, and the language is also in the curriculum of the "Oxford Senior Examinations" and in that of the (British) "National Union of Teachers." It may be remembered that the Pan-American Scientific Congress, which met in Santiago de Chile in January, 1909, recommended Esperanto "as a neutral international language which deserves an important place in the programs of primary instruction of the American nations." The Japanese Minister of Education also urges that a knowledge of the language be spread throughout that empire.

Experiment shows that a child can learn to read, write, and speak Esperanto in less time and with greater ease and accuracy than one of the national languages, and many educators now urge that the pupil should be taught the international language first of all. The fact that, to the grammatical rules laid down, there is not an exception, and that there is not an irregular word in the language, makes it possible for the young students to learn it readily, and to lay a solid foundation for future language-study without the perplexing confusion of difficulties found in the languages usually chosen. Professor J. W. B. Mayor, the famous linguist of Cambridge University, says: "As a first step to other languages, one so simple, so uniform, with such a richness of vowel-sounds as Esperanto, will be invaluable, especially for English people. At five, children should learn

Esperanto, and then pass to French, Latin, German, Greek, in this order." In this connection we would respectfully call your attention to the article on "Esperanto as a Prerequisite Study" by Dr. Ivy Kellerman, which appeared in the February (1910) number of the *School Review* of the University of Chicago Press.

Certain French and German educational institutions are using Esperanto as a means of teaching foreign pupils the national languages; and there is also a constantly increasing number of young Europeans, visiting foreign countries for purposes of study, who not only make all arrangements through Esperanto correspondence, but take lodgings in Esperanto-speaking families, thus making practical use of the language as a means to the end which they have in view. Esperantists of different nationalities are even exchanging their Esperanto-speaking children for the summer months, and the young people thus gain actual experience with a foreign language in a foreign country, at no expense except for travel.

Your representatives have not been able to procure complete statistics as to the number of European schools in which Esperanto is officially taught, and will mention only Paris, where ninety-seven weekly courses of instruction were established in the evening schools in the fall of 1909, and so many pupils applied that fourteen additional courses were immediately opened, giving a total of 111 in that city.

In conclusion, your representatives respectfully submit:

1. That there is a widespread demand for an auxiliary international language that may be easily learned and easily used in addition to their own by persons of moderate education.
2. That the Esperanto language, originated by Dr. L. L. Zamenhof, of Warsaw, appears better adapted to that end than any other language that has yet been proposed, and has acquired such a standing throughout the civilized world that there seems little possibility of its ever being displaced, and great probability that its use will continue to increase indefinitely.
3. That, in view of these facts and the fact that the young people of the United States appear to be behind their European

contemporaries in knowledge of Esperanto, the educational authorities of our various state governments should be urged to take immediate steps to introduce instruction in the language into all high schools and upper grades of the grammar and evening schools.

4. That, in view of the fact that the invitation of the Washington (D.C.) Chamber of Commerce has been accepted, and the Sixth International Esperanto Congress will occur in Washington, August 14-20, 1910, and also in view of the cordial recognition and assistance of the Congresses of 1908 and 1909 by the governments of Saxony and Spain, respectively, the United States government should be urged to render substantial aid to the coming congress, and thus enable the Executive Committee (whose chairman is Professor Spillman of the Department of Agriculture) to arrange for this gathering of the representatives of different lands on a scale befitting a nation like our own.

Respectfully submitted this 12th day of February, 1910.

(Signed) HERBERT HARRIS,
730 Congress Street, Portland, Maine

(Signed) EDWIN C. REED,
Washington, District of Columbia

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN 1909¹

JAMES E. DOWNEY
Boston High School of Commerce

I. INVESTIGATIONS

From time to time one meets in educational literature a plea for organizing experience and for giving the educational world the benefit of new developments and experiments. Attempts to meet this demand are being made in various parts of the country by investigations undertaken either by teachers' organizations or by individuals: questionnaires, or other inquiries for data are sent out. Many of the statements in this report are made as a result of such investigations; the report, as a whole, represents the result of about two thousand letters of inquiry.

1. *The teaching of English.*—In order that the teachers of English might know what is being done in English in the schools throughout New England, Mr. J. G. Hart, of Harvard University, suggested that the secretary of the New England English Teachers' Association appoint a Committee on Methods to procure as much information as possible relative to the methods used, the effort made at correlating English with other subjects, the amount of time allotted, and the manner in which this time is distributed among the various parts of the work in English. A committee of five was appointed, and under the leadership of Mr. Henry W. Holmes, of Harvard University, it has sent out several questionnaires—one to the teachers of English and

¹ A report by the Committee on Educational Progress of the Harvard Teachers' Association, presented at the nineteenth annual meeting, March, 1910. Committee: James E. Downey, Boston, *Chairman*; William D. Parkinson, Walham; Nathan C. Hamblin, Marion; Mrs. Fanny Fern Andrews, Boston; Harvey S. Gruver, Walpole; Frank M. Leavitt, Boston; John W. Wood, Boston; William W. Gallagher, Boston; F. O. Carpenter, Boston; J. Mahoney, Lawrence.

For the two preceding reports of the Committee on Educational Progress of the Harvard Teachers' Association, see the *School Review*, May, 1908, XVI, 296-319, and May, 1909, XVII, 289-329.

another to the pupils in the senior class in high schools and to the freshmen at college.²

2. *The teaching of mathematics.*—A thorough investigation into the teaching of mathematics has been undertaken under the auspices of the International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics. This movement was started at the Fourth International Congress of Mathematicians held at Rome, 1908, when the following resolution was passed:

The Congress, recognizing the importance of the methods and plans of study of the instruction in mathematics in the secondary schools of the different nations, empowers Messrs. Klein (of Göttingen), Greenhill (of London), and Fehr (of Geneva) to form an International Commission, to study these questions and present a general report to the next Congress.

This next Congress will be held in Cambridge, England, in 1912. In September, 1908, the Commission met at Cologne and adopted a preliminary report on the organization of the Commission and the general scope of the work. In this organization the United States was allowed three delegates, and the following were appointed as the American Commission: Professor W. F. Osgood of Harvard, Professor David Eugene Smith of Columbia, and Professor J. W. A. Young of Chicago. These National Commissioners in the different countries were invited to affiliate with themselves national subcommissioners, comprising representatives of the various stages of teaching of mathematics all the way from the kindergarten through the university.

The American Commission met March, 1909, and elected Professor Smith chairman; *School Science and Mathematics* was adopted as the official organ. An Advisory Council was formed, to consist of the three commissioners and nine other members. The American report, in its initial form, must be ready by January 1, 1911, for consideration by the International Commission.

3. *The Bureau of Municipal Research.*—Many of those interested in school affairs throughout the country are beginning

²The Association printed in February, 1910, a pamphlet presenting a *Report of the Committee on Co-operation*. The committee will be glad to send extra copies of this report wherever it is thought that it will be useful. Address Samuel Thurber, Jr., 9 Proctor St., Newtonville, of whom further information concerning the Association may be obtained.

to receive much help from the publications of the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City. This Bureau was established in January, 1906, and was incorporated under its present name in May, 1907. Its purposes as defined in its Articles of Incorporation are:

To promote efficient and economical municipal government; to promote the adoption of scientific methods of accounting and of reporting the details of municipal business, with a view to facilitating the work of public officials; to secure constructive publicity in matters pertaining to municipal problems; to collect, to classify, to analyze, to correlate, to interpret, and to publish facts as to the administration of municipal government.

As one of the departments of the municipal government, the school department has received from the Bureau its share of consideration. Its reports include, *School Progress and School Facts*, *School Stories*, and *What 360 Cities Are Doing for the Physical Welfare of School Children*. In addition to these a large number of small circulars, leaflets, and postal cards have been issued under the general title of *Efficient Citizenship*.

II. LEGISLATION

Nearly every state in the Union is giving attention to its school laws, either in revising or recodifying or in breaking new ground. It is impossible in this report to present details.

The most notable progress made within the past year, in regard to school legislation, has been that pertaining to industrial education.

From Minnesota we have an act "to provide for the establishment and the maintenance of departments of agriculture, manual training, and domestic economy in state high, graded, and consolidated schools, and to authorize rural schools to become associated with such state graded or high schools." The sum of \$25,000 was appropriated for this purpose for the year ending June 30, 1910, and an equal amount for the year ending June 30, 1911.

Texas enacted a law providing that manual training and agriculture be taught in the state normal schools and in summer

schools controlled by the state, and appropriated \$32,000 for each of the scholastic years, 1909-10 and 1910-11, to encourage instruction in agriculture in the common schools.

In Michigan an Industrial Commission has been created whose duty it is to make a careful study of the conditions of elementary, industrial, and agricultural education in the state and to make recommendations January 1, 1911.

Connecticut has authorized and directed the State Board of Education to establish in each of two towns, which may seem to said Board best adapted for the purpose, a free public day and evening school for instruction in the arts and the practice of the trades.

In Maine any incorporated academy maintaining an approved course in manual training, domestic science, or agriculture shall be entitled to state aid, not to exceed \$250 for each course.

Nevada authorizes instruction in industrial training, manual training, domestic science, and agriculture.

North Dakota provides for state instruction for teachers and prospective teachers in wood- and iron-work and the various other branches of manual training; cooking, sewing, modeling, art work, and the various other branches of domestic economics.

In Ohio any board of education may establish and maintain manual training, domestic science, and a commercial department, agricultural, industrial, vocational, and trade schools. The College of Agriculture and Domestic Science of Ohio State University is authorized and instructed to arrange for the extension of its teaching throughout the state, and to establish schools in which instruction shall be given in soil-fertility, stock-raising, crop-production, dairying, horticulture, domestic science, and kindred subjects.

Florida has passed an act requiring the teaching of the elementary principles of agriculture and civil government in all common schools.

The legislature of Vermont, on January 27, 1909, voted to give state aid to high schools or grammar schools maintaining an approved course in manual training, and they appropriated \$5,000 for this purpose.

Another marked movement is the general educational progress of the South.

Kentucky has just completed a vigorous educational campaign resulting in a thorough revision of the code of school laws.

Perhaps the most significant educational legislation in the South is the General Education Bill of Tennessee, which provides for setting aside 25 per cent of the gross revenues of the state for the benefit of the schools. This bill was passed April 20, 1909, and went into effect immediately.

The following southern states now have laws on the subject of compulsory attendance: Maryland, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Oklahoma, and the territory of New Mexico. Other southern states are trying to obtain such laws.

Minnesota, Maine, and New Jersey have also revised and strengthened their compulsory-attendance laws; New Jersey has extended the compulsory-attendance period to seventeen years for boys and girls who do not go to work.

The fact that many of the states are establishing normal schools indicates that the percentage of professionally trained teachers is increasing. Nebraska has established two normal schools; Texas, one—her fourth; Maine, one; Florida has appropriated \$4,000 for the year 1909-10 for a teachers' summer training school, providing impartially for both races; Kansas has appropriated \$50,000 to provide for normal training in a hundred or more of her high schools, primarily for the benefit of the rural teachers.

Maine has enacted laws providing for the better construction and equipment of school buildings, and for the appointment of school physicians in the several cities and towns of the state.

Rhode Island has revised her pension laws. The teachers in Minnesota may establish a teachers' retirement fund association. The last legislation of Nebraska provided a pension fund for teachers.

Rhode Island enacted a minimum-salary law, making \$400 the least amount which a teacher is to receive for a year's service.

Illinois' new code contains a very striking feature which

makes it illegal to keep children under twelve years of age in school more than four hours daily.

Connecticut abolished her "district system" and made the town the unit, July 15, 1909. Thus a system which so long retarded the growth of many New England schools is gradually being eliminated.

Tennessee places the control of her schools in the hands of a County Board of Education, thereby abolishing the smaller unit.

Possibly the most distinctive new legislation during the past year, if not for the last decade, is the bill just passed incorporating "Massachusetts College." Mr. Edmund D. Barbour is the originator of the idea. The plan in brief is as follows: to offer for a small fee, in some thirty different centers in the state, opportunities to do work of collegiate rank. Such courses will be conducted by college professors and others, in the high-school buildings of the various towns selected, at times when they are not used for public-school purposes. When the required amount of work is satisfactorily completed the degree of A.B. will be conferred.

A few instances of reaction are reported. The most noteworthy is the interpretation of the Illiterate Minors Law in Massachusetts. A child or minor has been defined as one under eighteen years of age. The vast army of non-English-speaking foreigners between eighteen and twenty-one years of age is no longer compelled to attend evening school as formerly.

III. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

From the general tone of a very large percentage of the replies which were received, we feel warranted in giving a prominent place in this report to the general subject of vocational education. For the sake of convenience in arranging our report, we are using a broad interpretation of that term.

1. *Industrial education.*—It is not in the establishment of schools or in the appointment of commissions that we find the most significant results of the tremendous amount of thought and discussion which has been given to the subject of industrial education during the past year. A deeper and more permanent

result is to be found in the accumulated evidence that the three groups of thinkers who have been most deeply interested in the subject are gradually reaching common ground regarding the fundamental elements of the problem. These three groups are: first, those interested in the commercial aspect of the subject, represented by the manufacturers; second, those who view the question from the standpoint of the industrial workers, best represented, perhaps, by the labor unions; third, those interested mainly in the educational phases presented, men who, by virtue of their position, have been charged with the duty of establishing industrial schools or courses. That there should be radical differences of opinion among these groups of men on any subject is to be expected. The manufacturer desires that education be made more practical, believing that this will increase the efficiency of his future operatives. The wage-earner naturally fears the exploitation of immature pupils by the manufacturer for his own selfish interests. The educator is zealous in maintaining the ideals of the schools which have so long stood for general and liberal culture. It is therefore worthy of note that the latest reports available, showing the present attitude of these groups, indicate that they have come to a substantial agreement on two important points: (1) that the industrial school must be a part of the regular public-school system; (2) that industrial education must begin in the elementary school. The first point is clearly expressed in the following quotation from the report of a committee of the American Federation of Labor, presented to and approved by that organization at its recent Toronto meeting:

The committee recommends that, any technical education of the workers in trade and industry being a public necessity, it should not be a private, but a public function, conducted by the public and the expense reimbursed at public cost.

The second would seem to be a logical conclusion from the report of the Douglas Commission which first called public attention to the great waste occasioned by the dropping-out of children from the lower grades. The technical high school, which requires the completion of a grammar-school course as a condition of membership therein, cannot reach the boys and girls who

refuse to finish the elementary-school course. The above deduction seems so obvious that it is remarkable that general agreement has only just been reached. The fact is, however, the more significant and important. Having settled the question of where and when industrial training is to be given, the way will become clearer for solving the practical problems of the training of teachers, the formulation of courses, and the production of textbooks.

Perhaps the most interesting event in Massachusetts has been the reorganization of the educational forces of the state, whereby the State Commission on Industrial Education has been merged with the State Board of Education, with the provision that a Commissioner of Education shall direct, through two deputies, all of the educational work of the state. One deputy will have charge of the work of advancing the interests of industrial education, and harmony is to take the place of the difficult situation which has previously existed.

2. *Agricultural education.*—There is no other subject of the new education that is spreading so rapidly over the country as teaching men how to farm profitably. In many sections the colleges are giving extension work for the farmers, sometimes at the colleges, often at local centers within easy reach of the farmers. Special instruction trains are run from town to town, giving practical lessons at every stop, which are eagerly attended by the farmers. Experiment stations of state and nation try experiments which the farmer could not undertake, but which are of the highest value to him. The most important advance in 1909 was the introduction of the teaching of agriculture in many high schools, and the establishment of special agricultural high schools in some central towns.

3. *Commercial education.*—There has not been any very striking advance in commercial education during 1909, but a great amount of valuable work has been done in improving and testing the courses of study, and especially in the preparation of new textbooks for use in the classes. The number of pupils choosing commercial courses of various kinds increases every year, and in many of the so-called classical high schools the

commercial pupils are the largest part of the school. There is a growing tendency to use maps, specimens, and illustrative material of all kinds in teaching commercial subjects.

Ever since its establishment, the Boston High School of Commerce has emphasized the necessity of actual business experience in the training of its pupils. This year it is trying to organize and systematize this branch of its work more definitely than ever before. A so-called apprenticeship plan is in process of adoption for this purpose. The chief features of the plan are as follows: (1) To require each boy who is considered sufficiently mature to spend six weeks of the summer in a business house. This applies to the boys of the second- and third-year classes; (2) to secure in advance, from business houses, promises of positions for these boys; (3) to base the school's recommendation of the boy on his school record; (4) to require a definite record of his efficiency in the business house when he returns to school in the fall. Thus far about one hundred firms have been interviewed, and approximately one hundred and fifty places have been secured for the coming summer. The attitude of most of the business men toward the plan is extremely gratifying.

4. *Continuation schools.*—During the year just past, continuation schools have been in the foreground of educational discussion, as one phase of the general idea of industrial education. The plans of schoolmen are still somewhat hazy as to the best practical way of handling this problem, but some specific attempts have been made toward its solution. One of the most conspicuous of these is the continuation school established by the city of Cincinnati in August, 1909. There are 200 machine-shop apprentices who attend one-half day a week, four hours, without loss of pay. The course consists of drawing, shop problems, mechanics, applied mathematics, industrial reading, and composition and discussion, including civics. The teacher visits the boys in their shops two half days per week. The experiment has been satisfactory. The manufacturers say that the boys do more in the fifty hours than they formerly did in the fifty-four. Many have had material increases in salary.

In Boston a supervisor of continuation schools has been appointed.

5. *Vocation bureaus.*—An account of the work of the Vocation Bureau of Boston was given in last year's report. On May 4, 1909, the movement was taken up by the Boston School Committee, which asked the Boston 1915 Committee to appoint a vocation bureau for the purpose of assisting graduates of the public schools "in choosing wisely the most appropriate employment and in securing the same for them." As a result of this vote a committee began weekly meetings in September, 1909, which have been continued. The work of this committee was described in detail in the *Boston Evening Transcript* of Wednesday, March 9, 1910.

Valuable work in directing young people in the choice of a vocation has been done in New York by the Students' Aid Committee, of which Mr. E. W. Weaver, of the Brooklyn Boys' High School, is chairman. Several interesting pamphlets have been published on the general subject of their work. An appreciative statement concerning the efforts of this committee may be found in the eleventh annual report of Superintendent W. H. Maxwell to the New York City Board of Education.

IV. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. *Athletics.*—In years gone by, physical education in school was largely confined to that furnished the favored few who make the football or the baseball team. Today the ideal is to train not a team but a school. And a school consists of girls as well as boys. Mention has already been made in these reports of New York's plan to attain this end, a plan that aims to systematize and diversify out-of-door sports in such a way that everyone can "get into the game." Boston is working out the same idea with marked success. One does not see the scheme so highly developed everywhere as in these two places. But ~~everywhere~~ in cities, both large and small, it is felt that the "new athletics," offering opportunities for participation to all, should be incorporated in the program of the modern school. Newark has just bought an athletic field of nine acres, which will be well equipped.

Tacoma has in process of construction a stadium, which, when completed, will cost \$100,000. The little town of Hingham, Massachusetts, has been experimenting with field hockey for girls, and working out the idea of inter-class games. A report from Cincinnati says, "Athletics are taking on a character of out-of-door sports and attention to individuals. Thousands compete, whereas a few years ago only a team or two from each school got the benefit." Indoors more time is given to physical training. Boston, again, is here in the foreground. It has a most comprehensive syllabus for this activity, including plays, games, and dancing. Newport, Rhode Island, has recently installed a system with two supervisors, one man and one woman. Lawrence, Massachusetts, is planning to introduce a course in physical work with the beginning of the new year.

2. *Playgrounds.*—A particular phase of educational activity that has attracted widespread public attention during the year just passed has been the playground movement. The Playground Association of America through its publicity bureau has sent out sixty-nine different publications, which are furnished at a nominal cost to cities throughout the country for publicity campaigns. Photographs, cuts, and lantern slides are lent to various cities to help in increasing the interest in playgrounds. Speakers are furnished for playground campaigns, and play-leaders recommended for supervising work already begun. Thus far forty-two Massachusetts cities have voted on the Massachusetts Playground Law (local option); forty have reported favorably. In June, Minnesota passed a law permitting cities of 50,000 inhabitants to issue bonds to the extent of \$100,000 to acquire and improve sites for playgrounds. New Jersey and Ohio had already similar laws in force. Playground legislation is now pending in Montana and Indiana. Nearly 400 cities with a population of 5,000 or over are now maintaining playgrounds. Of especial interest is the new Recreation Committee of New York City, which plans to make an inventory of all the recreational facilities of the city, and try to make them adequate to educational needs.

With the rapid multiplication of the playgrounds has come the broadening of their usefulness. In many cities the season in

the school playground lasts the whole year round. There is a general tendency to lengthen the playground day so as to include the evening session also, the result being a great increase of interest in the school as a social center. Buffalo has tried the interesting experiment, borrowed from Germany, of organizing tramping trips with the playground children. And the idea is gradually gaining ground that making the door-yards, vacant lots, streets, and roofs of tenements available for play is no less important than providing playgrounds.

The playground movement is new, and some mistakes have been made. So far, one lesson has been learned: an unsupervised playground is worse than none.

3. *School gardens.*—The school-garden movement has gone on during the year 1909 in the right direction, but without any specially notable events. Most of the large cities now do some school-garden work in connection with vacation schools and playgrounds or in connection with nature study.

Cleveland, Ohio, is one city where school-garden work is satisfactorily carried on by the School Department. Boston, like most other places, carries it on by private effort. In Buffalo, a new association was formed in the fall of 1909 to help the movement. Pittsburg recently took up the work through the Playground Association. The International Farm League of New York City has very successfully shown the value of garden work in connection with hospitals for children. The Russell Sage Foundation has made a careful study of the school-garden movement by a paid investigator, but the results are not yet reported.

One rather interesting development in the line of nature-study is the cereal and textile gardens, which are used as aids in the study of commercial geography. The eight cereals, wheat, corn, oats, rye, barley, buckwheat, rice, millet, can all be easily grown in most parts of the country, and not only show the plants that produce the breadstuffs of the world, but also furnish specimens of the grains in sheaf and in bulk, for study in the school-room and for museum specimens. In the same way flax, hemp, and ramie can easily be grown in the season, and cotton plants

if started in the house like tomato plants, and planted out of doors after the frosts are past, will develop their bolls by the fall.

4. *Medical inspection.*—The policy of medical inspection is rapidly extending, both in area and in scope. Already two-thirds of the cities of the country, and several entire states, have inaugurated some form of inspection. One-third of the cities inspect children's teeth. A rapidly increasing number employ nurses to follow up the defects discovered by the physician, and to effect a remedy or instruct the parent as to treatment. St. Louis has established a bacteriological laboratory in direct connection with its schools. Mention may here be made of the campaign against tuberculosis by open-air schools, anti-tuberculosis classes, and house-to-house instruction; the work of the bureau of milk and baby hygiene, with its clinic for healthy babies; and, very different but equally significant, the work of the Committee of One Hundred, organized by the Life Insurance Companies for education in hygienic reforms.

5. *Outdoor schools and fresh-air rooms.*—From the *Waldschule*, or forest school, at Charlottenburg, Prussia, established in 1904, the movement for outdoor education has extended to different parts of Germany, England, Switzerland, and the United States. In the latter country, we find open-air schools of a very different type from that started at Charlottenburg. The first one established was at Providence two years ago; Boston followed, last year, and Chicago, Pittsburg, Rochester, and Hartford very recently.

The outdoor school at Boston is an outgrowth of the school for outdoor life maintained on Parker Hill for tuberculous children during the summer of 1908. This was taken over in the autumn by the city and provided with a teacher at municipal expense. There are now eighty children in the school, which is run in conjunction with the Society for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis. In January this school was moved to Franklin Park, where it is now carried on on the roof of the Refectory. There are a kitchen, dining-room, and rest-room on the lower floors. The children study and play, and an hour's rest is compulsory after the midday meal, which, as well as breakfast and

supper, is furnished by the school. Breathing exercises are used and canvas bags are provided.

In close connection with the outdoor schools are fresh-air rooms. Recently, the Boston School Committee made an investigation of the anemic children in the schools, and although no official report has as yet been made as to the results of this investigation, it is probable that fresh-air rooms will be opened in those districts where the number of anemic children is considerable.

V. ETHICAL TRAINING

1. *Moral and religious education.*—The awakening of interest in ethics in the schools is strongly evinced by reports from all over the country. How this shall find expression in our public schools seems still, however, to be far from definite settlement. To quote from the excellent report of the Committee on Moral Training of the State Teachers' Association of Colorado,

There is evidence that an overwhelming majority of educators, though distrusting the value of too great reliance upon minute formal instruction in ethics, possess an abiding faith that growth in character is bound to be the natural product of orderly school activities, if these be administered with a view to giving systematic opportunity for the application of conscientious feeling to the judgments affecting daily conduct in all the social relationships of the school.

The city of Philadelphia is to make an elaborate experiment in the line of direct ethical teaching. A large gift of money has made it possible to plan very thorough work. A list of fundamentally important virtues has been prepared and definite instruction in each will be given.

The close relationship between moral education and all the school activities makes it hard to note all signs of progress in this field. The special branch of such work which is being particularly cared for by outside organizations is the dissemination of knowledge with reference to sex hygiene. The Massachusetts Association of Boards of Health has issued circulars filled with concise, accurate information for distribution among young people. The Health Education League of Boston is doing similar work. In a broader way such organizations as the Religious

Education Association, the American Ethical Union, and the New York State Association for Moral and Religious Education are continually arousing public interest. The reports of the meetings of these organizations offer a wealth of material for the student of the problem. Where the teachers, or pupils in the normal schools, are directly trained in the methods appropriate to ethical instruction, as in Newark, New Jersey, the problem is being attacked in a thorough way.

2. *Social education.*—A very interesting example of an attempt to make adequate provision for the social training of high-school pupils is found in the University High School, The University of Chicago. A day school of six hundred pupils, of whom two-thirds are boys, it aims to provide for all the proper social activities of its pupils. These activities are in charge of four committees of the faculty: the Committee on Athletics and Games, the Committee on Literary Clubs, the Committee on Science and Art Clubs, the Committee on Student Publications. All meetings are held on the school premises, the usual time being three o'clock, the hour when the session of the day ends. The schedule providing for meetings of certain groups of clubs on certain days makes it possible for a pupil to belong to clubs of various sorts.

Mr. Franklin Winslow Johnson has described in detail the social life of this high school in the *School Review* for December, 1909.

3. *Training for citizenship.* A new movement in civic education was begun at Boston in 1909. In its methods and practical application it is new, but it was a natural outgrowth of some practical work in economics which had been done for some years in the English High School, Boston. The purpose of the new movement and the association that has been formed to carry it on may be seen from the following quotation from the circulars of the society itself.

The City Guard is an association of the boys and girls of America, to do scout service in the fight for the welfare of the city where they live.

Purpose of the Guard: To keep the city clean, to make the city beautiful, to make the people happier.

Duty of the Guard: To see and report "the things that hurt," that is, the things that make life unhappy for them and their neighbors in the parts of the city where they live, such as unclean or dangerous streets, gangs of hoodlums in the streets, unsanitary homes and vacant lots, children forced to play in the streets, etc. To see and to do "the things that help," that is, the things which make life happier for other people, such as: to find out the friendless people and give them friends; to plant trees, vines, etc., to make the city beautiful; to give lectures, talks, etc., on ways to help the city, as "How Streets Are Made and Kept in Repair," "What the Police Can and Cannot Do," "What Makes Houses and Lots Unsanitary," "Children Are Citizens Now, Voters By and By."

The first division of the Guard was formed in May, 1909, at the English High School, by Mr. F. O. Carpenter. The Guard is for all boys and girls of the city, whether in school or not. The citizens of the Guard report to a central committee, which classifies the reports and sends them to the various societies and city departments whose duty it is to correct these evils; but if these agencies neglect the work, the Guard will do it itself.

VI. SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. *Articulation of the school system.*—In New York the so-called six-and-six plan, dividing the ordinary twelve-year course equally between primary and secondary school, has growing support. Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, starting with a similar division, proceed to subdivide the secondary school into an intermediate or "junior high" school for the first three years and a superior high school for the last three. The latter plan would seem to give greater promise of flexibility than the "six-and-six," because of the centrifugal tendency of the elective system, which splits classes into fragments so speedily as to be practically incompatible with a six-year course in the same school. Freedom of electives anywhere makes for short courses and diversified institutions.

An administrative change which promises more for real flexibility than either of the foregoing is that whereby Boston is reducing its quota of pupils to a teacher. The adjustment of work to individual needs rests ultimately with the teacher, and no other step can so directly promote this adjustment as that

which liberates the teacher from the chain-gang of the mass, and thus facilitates the personal approach of teacher and pupil.

The study of school efficiency by Mr. L. P. Ayres, of the Sage Foundation, seems to point to the conclusion that flexibility in the scheme of organization is a minor factor in efficiency as compared with sympathy in the administration of the scheme. This is suggested both negatively, by the absence from the tables showing comparative success in various particulars of any evidence of superiority in school systems characterized by flexible plans of grading, and positively by the generally higher efficiency shown by small city systems as compared with large. The advantage of the small system is not in superior mechanical organization, but in less dependence upon mechanism in its organization: which again points to the personal approach as the dominant element in the adjustment of the school to individual needs.

2. *College entrance examinations.*—In order to facilitate the comparison of admission requirements and to afford a standard of measurement for work done in the secondary schools, the College Entrance Examination Board has adopted the Carnegie unit system. "A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work." A year's work in a subject means at least one hundred and twenty full hours.

The College Board's new physics requirements go into effect this year. In the main, they are a compromise between the old school and the new, and combine the use of a standard textbook, supplemented by lecture demonstrations, with individual laboratory work requiring at least sixty hours. The Board has prepared a list of fundamental topics and experiments. In place of a notebook, a teacher's certificate stating that one has been prepared is accepted.

Yale, like Harvard, has abolished the five-subject limitation at the preliminary examination. Heretofore a candidate has been given credit only if passing five subjects or more, and otherwise has been forced to repeat the examination. Henceforth credit will be given for single subjects passed. After this year

Latin will cease to be a requirement for entrance to the Sheffield Scientific School.

3. *Exchange of teachers.*—During 1909 an exchange of secondary-school teachers between the United States and Prussia was inaugurated on a plan arranged and carried out by the Prussian Ministry of Education and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The German teachers visiting this country give instruction in their own language in American high schools and colleges, while the American teachers sent to Prussia render the same kind of service in the *Gymnasien*, *Realgymnasien*, and *Oberrealschulen*. The selection of American teachers is made through a committee working under the Carnegie Foundation. A small stipend, to cover necessary living expenses, is paid to the teacher by each school having one of the visiting instructors. The plan has been so successful that there are now nine American teachers serving in Prussia, while Yale University, Phillips Andover Academy, Phillips Exeter Academy, the Horace Mann School, the University of Chicago High School, and the Hill School of Pottstown, Pennsylvania, have each availed themselves of the services of a Prussian teacher. The observations of the first year of experience of American teachers in Prussia are given at some length in the recent report of the Carnegie Foundation.

VII. THE STATUS OF THE TEACHER

1. *Relation of teachers to other school officers.*—A phase of educational progress which is everywhere claiming attention is the matter of professional co-operation in the teaching body. The merits of such a plan are clearly set forth by Mr. Stratton D. Brooks, superintendent of schools in Boston, in his annual report for 1909.

What is needed [says Mr. Brooks] is an organization that provides for the fullest consideration of educational policies by teachers, by principals, and by the supervisory force, wherein every major problem may be discussed with fullest harmony and with most complete information as to its bearing upon the interests of pupils, of teachers, and of the community. Such an organization should have official recognition and become a permanent institution that would guarantee a professional, rather than a personal, consideration of school problems.

To effect such an institution high-school councils have been created in Boston, where in each high school department meetings are held in which opportunity is given for each teacher to take part in the discussion. Problems are considered with reference to their effect upon both pupils and teachers.

In the council meetings [Mr. Brooks says] each high school is represented, and any modifications of the department decisions made necessary by the interrelation of the high schools may be determined. The recommendations of the councils are sent to the Head Masters' Association and here the questions are again discussed by the principals with reference to the broader lines of high-school administration that they may involve. Here, also, are present representatives from each council, thus insuring that a recommendation from one council, say that of English, shall be subjected to the critical consideration of representatives from every other council whose interests may be affected thereby. The conclusions of the head masters are in turn submitted to the Board of Superintendents, where they are again discussed with reference to their relation to the school system as a whole.

Thus, when the recommendations finally reach the School Board, they represent the views of all those concerned in the effective carrying-out of the policy.

It is the opinion of Mr. Brooks that a similar participation of teachers in determining educational policies for the elementary schools is even more desirable than for the high schools, though he considers it more difficult. And to support his contention he points to the efficient work of the various committees appointed in recent years. Among others may be mentioned the committees on geography, arithmetic, English, elementary science, physiology and hygiene, physical training, and history, which were appointed to suggest improvements in the course of study for the elementary schools in their respective subjects. The present course of study in the Boston schools is the result of the active co-operation of teachers with school officials.

According to Mr. Brooks' statement, the Boston school system has been rendered good service by committees of teachers on college credit (opportunities of study accessible to Boston teachers), on conferences (unification of educational effort in conferences, committees, associations, etc.), on permanent exhibit (at the Normal School), on savings bank pensions, on card systems

of records for elementary schools, on vocational advice, and on plans for school buildings.

Another example of similar co-operation is found in the Teachers' Council of Tacoma, Washington, whose objects are "to bring the teachers of Tacoma into closer relations professionally and socially," and "to represent the whole body of teachers of the city in all matters which concern them professionally, and to present to and discuss with the school authorities of Tacoma all matters of professional interest." The membership of this council consists of "two women and two men teachers of the high school, and of two teachers from each of the eight grades of the city schools, provided that no principal or supervisor shall be eligible to membership or be entitled to vote." The Council holds two regular meetings each month during the school year.

A report on a "plan for faculty organization in high schools" and a "teachers' advisory council," by a committee of the Washington Educational Association, shows possibilities in these directions similar to the Boston plan.

Dallas, Texas, offers another plan. Here the Teachers' Advisory Council is composed of one representative, elected by the teachers, of each grade of the elementary schools; one representative, elected by the faculty, of each high school; and two principals of elementary schools, elected by the principals.

This council shall meet as occasions arise to hear all teachers who may desire to present their views, and the council shall be required to file with the secretary of the Board of Education on or before the first day of June each year such report as it may choose on matters concerning the elementary schools or the system as a whole, addressed to the superintendent, but to remain intact in the records of the Board and to be considered by the Board in connection with the reports and recommendations of the superintendent. In addition to the representative council, the faculties of the high schools shall file in the same manner a report dealing with matters especially concerning the sphere of the high school.

In a report made to the Board of Education of Dallas, on April 12, 1909, Superintendent Arthur Lefevre says that

the substitution of autocratic regulation for genuine organization in the professional life and work of teachers is the worst defect in the public school systems of the United States. . . . It would, therefore, [Mr. Lefevre

continues] be expedient to institute formally provisions for securing the advice of teachers, with the main purpose of engendering a free interest in the entire scope of their professional work and a sense of individual responsibility for intelligent initiative. Proper results can never flow, in such work as teaching, from mere obedience to promulgated decisions concerning which the teachers have taken no previous thought. . . . Every teacher should be led to understand that there is a regular way by which his judgment upon any existing or proposed arrangement affecting the work of the schools will be duly considered, and that counsel in such regards is not only welcome, but the expression of deliberate opinions is expected and imposed as a duty. Such conditions ought to be established in a formal and institutional manner.

2. *Tenure of office.*—The New Jersey legislature passed a law in 1909 providing that after a probationary period of three years no teacher shall be dismissed or have his salary reduced except by majority vote of the whole board of education, and only after written and signed charges have been preferred, the teacher to have the right to public hearing with counsel. This is designed especially to protect teachers who are approaching the twenty-year limit and who would be eligible to retirement on half pay.

An interesting case appeared in California. The San Francisco Board of Education passed a resolution that all teachers in the schools must live within the city limit, as required by the city charter. A teacher brought suit to restrain the board from enforcing the rule. The city attorney himself held that teachers were not city employees, but employees of the school district, an entirely separate body politic, and subject to the provisions of the general California school law, and not those of the city charter. The judge ruled that the resolution of the Board of Education could not be enforced.

3. *Salaries.*—November 29, 1909, Mayor George B. McClellan of New York City appointed a commission, consisting of Messrs. Gustav H. Schwab, John B. Clark, and C. H. Keep, to ascertain how much the several proposed schemes for equalizing the pay of men and women teachers in the public schools would annually cost the city, and to make such suggestions as they should deem advisable. As the commission was obliged to report before January 1, 1910, when the mayor's term expired, it was

unable to make the searching investigation which it deemed necessary. Its report, therefore, mainly defines the problems involved and the character of the inquiry to be pursued before any decision should be taken. The commission points out that the probable effect of the passage of the so-called White bill, which represents the present demands of the Interborough Women Teachers' Association, and which was passed by the legislature in 1907 and vetoed by the governor and the mayor, would be to drive the more valuable men from the service. Besides increasing the minimum salary and the yearly increments, this bill insists that where men and women are both employed in any particular schedule there shall be no discrimination in salary on account of sex.

It is obvious that, wherever men are employed at all, they should be of such personal quality as to compare well with the women who are associated with them. It is also clear that the rate of pay which will attract women of high quality does not suffice to attract men of an equally high grade.

The Boston Elementary Teachers' Association has issued a pamphlet comparing kindergarten and grade salaries in Boston with those of other cities. The Massachusetts Superintendents' Association believes that no teacher in the state should receive less than \$450 per annum, whereas at present 17 per cent of the teachers receive less than that sum. The *Boston Herald* in an editorial states that while prices have advanced one-third teachers' salaries have remained almost stationary.

The Teachers' Salary Conference of Chicago, of which Serena H. Hayes is chairman and Mary M. Abbe is secretary, has issued a statistical pamphlet entitled *A Comparison of Increase in Cost of Living and Elementary Teachers' Salaries, with Recommendations and Suggestions*.

4. *Pensions*.—The past year has witnessed the establishment of retirement funds in various parts of the country. As a rule these are maintained jointly by assessments on the teachers' salaries, and by approximately equal contributions by the local or state authorities from the general school funds, the total being sometimes swelled by donations. Membership is usually compulsory.

Minnesota has passed a law permitting, but not requiring, cities of 50,000 inhabitants to create pension funds by assessing the teachers and by raising, by taxation, an amount equal to one-tenth of a mill of the taxable property of the city. Nebraska requires school districts in certain cities to set apart from their general funds not less than one and one-half times the amount of the salary assessments. A peculiar feature of the Nebraska act is that while assessments are proportionate to salary, payments are made on a flat-rate basis of \$500 a year. In the District of Columbia, Congress co-operates with the teachers in maintaining a retirement fund. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, reports the most generous maximum of the year—\$800—and provides full annuity, regardless of age or length of service, for any present teacher who becomes incapacitated for any reason whatever. The Superintendent of Schools in Asbury Park, New Jersey—a state which stands among the foremost in caring for its superannuated teachers—points out that a teacher who has served one district thirty years and is also a member of the Retirement Fund sometimes receives an annuity equal to eleven-tenths of his annual salary.

The year, then, has witnessed material gains. On the other hand, we must note the existence of a feeling that progress has been one-sided; that while the teachers of elementary schools are being provided for, the problem in the high schools has been barely touched. Though the average annuity is, on paper, one-half the annual salary, the provision that no annuity shall exceed a maximum fixed anywhere between \$300 and \$800—the latter figure being exceptional—practically destroys the value of the pension for the higher-salaried teacher. As a mere matter of fact, aside from all considerations of justice, public opinion does not countenance the compulsory retirement of a \$2,500 teacher on \$400 a year any more than it countenanced his retirement without pay when pensions were not in vogue. Yet the ultimate justification of the pension system is this very ability to retire honorably, for the good of the service, broken-down and aged teachers who have survived their usefulness. The low maximum is not due to discrimination, but is inherent in any system de-

pendent to an appreciable extent upon contributions from the meager salaries of the teachers. The trend of educational conviction is in the direction of pension systems supported by the public at large.

VIII. THE SCHOOL AND THE PUBLIC

1. *Lay organizations.*—Many modifications in the course of study and in the actual administration of school systems are the result of the active co-operation of lay organizations. The school improvement associations of the South and the Conference for Education in Texas, which "enjoys the unique distinction of being the only educational campaign organization in the United States supported entirely by voluntary contributions and devoting its entire time to a propaganda in favor of school policies," may be cited as examples. Mothers' clubs, public-education associations, and home and school associations have grown in number and influence during the past year. No school system today seems complete without this adjunct of lay co-operation. The experimental stage of such organizations has passed, and school boards are more and more recognizing the value of such voluntary co-operation.

2. *Wider use of school property and extension work of schools and colleges.*—The use of the school building as a social and educational center for all classes of the community has become firmly established. In those cities and towns where public lecture courses have been established for some years each new season sees an increase in attendance and an enlargement of the program offered. Several places note the marked improvement in the personnel of the audience. There is a considerable variety in the relations between the school authorities and such work in different places.

CORRESPONDENCE

REPLY TO REVIEW OF THE "GREAT DESIGN" OF HENRY IV

To the Editor of the School Review:

My attention has been called to a review of my little edition of *The "Great Design" of Henry IV* in the February number of the *School Review* in which the reviewer states that in my introduction to the work I waive aside the controversial literature upon the authorship of the "Great Design" as without weight and asks whether it was "intellectually honest" not to state that it has been conclusively proved that the idea was a pure invention of Sully's, and Henry IV had nothing to do with it. To be called dishonest, even interrogatively, is certainly rather startling. I question whether other terms are not better for expressing differences of opinion; and I think you will pardon a gentle demurrer.

A man is dishonest when he says what he does not believe. Your reviewer evidently believes that it has been "conclusively proved" that Henry IV had nothing to do with the "Great Design." He would therefore be dishonest if he did not say so. I should be dishonest if I did say so, for I, after reading an enormous amount of literature on the subject, do not believe it. Pfister, to whose able articles your reviewer refers, surely does not "conclusively prove" it, nor does Kükelhaus in his searching study. I go far with both, although both leave much to be said. Both of them do show how much of the bolstering was Sully's invention and what an evolution the idea undoubtedly went through at his hands. Sully's history is everywhere suspicious and often demonstrably untrue. But to regard exaggerations, and even falsehoods about an alleged fact as "conclusive proof" that there was no kernel of fact at all is a wild canon. That the idea in some germinal form was never talked over between Henry and Sully, as Sully reiterates, that he foisted it bodily upon his hero with no apparent adequate motive, seems to me a much harder hypothesis to defend than that of evolution from something, seems—I agree with Cornelius—"schlechterdings nicht denkbar." There is surely no inherent improbability in Henry and Sully having talked over some such idea; and if they did, the qualities of the two minds encourage the notion that Henry was first with it. Pfister thinks, not unreasonably, that Sully may have got some of his ideas from Crucé's famous *Nouveau Cynée*; but it is clear from Pfister's own pages, as of course otherwise, that the plan in embryo was in circulation, probably through Sully's initiative, years before the publication (1623) of Crucé's book; and dreams of a united

Europe were in the air years before Henry's death. That Henry and Sully should have dreamed them somehow together is in itself not half so remarkable as that Pierre Dubois dreamed his similar and equally systematic dream there in France so long before Crucé, Sully, or Henry came upon the stage at all.

But I hold no brief for either side of this interminable dispute, and care comparatively little about it. The historical questions involved are certainly interesting, and in some connections important; but I was not including the "Great Design" in my series primarily as a historical document, in which case my notes might fittingly be more specific and detailed, but as a peace classic, and I was called upon to notice the controversy about its genesis only as a secondary thing. As matter of fact, so far from "waiving aside" the controversy as of no significance, I find that I devoted to it six pages of the fourteen in my brief introduction, naming half a dozen authors, including the sharpest French and German critics, whom students especially interested in the controversy could refer to, and bodily incorporating more than two pages from Kitchin, the ablest of the English writers known to me who takes essentially the same critical position. It is impossible for anybody to read seriously what I wrote and not see that the old idea about the "Great Design" is under severest impeachment. I therefore humbly submit that the implication that I attached no weight to the controversial literature on this subject is—I certainly would not say "dishonest" but simply untrue.

One generally makes a mistake to answer his critics. One had better leave it to his book to defend him or fail to, with any interested reader. I write this word because I respect so highly your journal and its constituency, before whom I confess it is not agreeable to be charged either with dishonesty or with ignoring a point to which I really devoted more attention than could fairly be asked. As your reviewer precisely inverts my main purpose on the point at issue, permit me to repeat what I said in my introduction:

The authenticity of the "Great Design" as the work of Henry himself has been the subject of long and heated controversy. . . . The settlement of this vexed question does not concern us here. Whether Shakespeare or Bacon wrote "Hamlet," our chief interest is in the possession of "Hamlet." Whether the king or his minister conceived the "Great Design," our chief interest is in the fact that this broad and bold programme of world organization was worked out in that critical period of history.

EDWIN D. MEAD

BOSTON, MASS.

EDITORIAL NOTES

"The Aims, Scope, and Methods of a University Course in Public School Administration" was the topic discussed last March at the annual

THE DISCUSSION
OF THE STUDY OF
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
AT THE
MEETING OF
COLLEGE TEACHERS
OF EDUCATION

meeting of the National Society of College Teachers of Education at Indianapolis. The papers had been printed, as usual, in advance of the meeting, and had been distributed to the members of the society. The papers, especially the principal paper by Superintendent Spaulding, of Newton, Mass., had been written with unusual care, and are likely to have a permanent and favorable influence on the work of university departments of education in training supervisory officers—an important phase of the work not yet well developed, and greatly in need of development. It was accordingly expected that the papers would call forth thoughtful and vigorous discussion of the views expressed by the writers and the procedure recommended by them. Some pointed questions were indeed asked, and much discussion ensued. Unfortunately, however, too much time was consumed in a fruitless criticism of the alleged pessimism of Superintendent Spaulding's paper, and the "vagueness" and emptiness of his ideal of "universal education" as the fundamental end to be achieved through good administration (this last, together with Dr. Spaulding's insistence on "vision, insight, and will" as the fundamental qualities to be developed in the administrative officer, being characterized as "empty formulae"): and by Dr. Spaulding's prolonged and crushing rejoinder to his critic. A lively academic scrimmage furnishes more or less entertainment to the non-combatants who witness it, but at least one listener would have been satisfied with a much briefer attack and rejoinder.

The really important questions to be answered were what the guiding principles are which, with our present insight, will serve as the basis of profitable experimenting in the organization and administration of public-school systems; how these principles are derived, and how they may be effectively assimilated by the neophyte in the field of school supervision and by the experienced principal or superintendent who returns to the university for insight, guidance, and inspiration. All three of the printed papers endeavored to present such principles, or, at least, to make it clear where, in the opinion of the writers, such principles were to be found; and Dr. Spaulding and Professor Elliott presented topical outlines of courses of instruction in which these principles were embodied, in part at least. Dr. Spaulding's paper also suggested the general method whereby these princi-

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MAY BE MADE
PROFITABLE

ples might be assimilated by the student. After pointing out that the facts of organization and administration constitute the only source of the desired principles, and that the three sources of these facts are "his (the student's) own experience of school conditions, his immediate direct observation of schools and their administration, and the literature of the subject," he made the following important suggestion: "Every professor of education who is to give a course in school administration should, if possible, form a limited working partnership with at least one school superintendent, better with several. This partnership should insure to the professor and his students, under whatever restrictions it might be best to impose, access to the administrative center—the thought and motor center—of the school system. From this standpoint, they should carry on continued studies of actual plans and problems of administration with which the superintendent might be occupied." Much study of such "real, concrete, and localized problems of administration," and such study only, can yield the guiding principles, the tone and temper of mind, the broad outlook, the clear insight, and the courageous will that are indispensable to the efficient administrative officer. This clear statement of the difficulties to be solved in giving a university course in school administration, and the fruitful suggestion of the possible solution of many of them, have never before been presented to the assembled professors of education. A cynic, listening to the discussion at the meeting, might have said that most of us were not yet ready to study school administration, much less to give a university course in that subject. The justification of the cynic's view would have been found in the fact that we were apparently looking for the principles of school administration elsewhere than in school administration itself. There was much talk of the sciences—economics, sociology, ethics, philosophy, psychology—from which the administrative officer is to derive guidance and inspiration, and in which, accordingly, the university teacher of school administration is to find the facts and principles which the student is to learn; but there was comparatively little reference to the study of school administration itself as the real source of guidance and inspiration to both professor and student—a point on which Dr. Spaulding had laid special stress. Only one man ventured to give any definite answer to the pointed questions of Professor DeGarmo, who wanted someone to state explicitly what some of the fundamental principles of school administration are. One cannot help sharing the cynic's view, therefore, to some extent, at least. For on further reflection it seems clearer than ever that the way to study school administration is to study school administration, and not to study the social and philosophical sciences, however great the value of a thorough study of these sciences may be—and it is very great—as a preparation for the study of school administration.

P.H.H.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets. By JANE ADDAMS. New York: Macmillan, 1909. Pp. 162. \$1.25.

To most teachers there must come occasionally a vague sense of society's failure to realize all it might from the aspirations and generous impulses of successive generations of young people. To many comes also a more definite feeling when this or that boy or girl goes wrong. We know well enough that boys and girls are imprudent, heedless, and unstable, but the very spontaneity and emotional susceptibility and variability, yes, even the impatience of tradition and authority which excite by turns our affection and our disapproval are among nature's choicest assets. It is doubtful if the race would be continued if youth were as prudent as age; it is probable that many of humanity's great causes would never have been championed and carried forward if the spirit of adventure had not lured men on against odds; it is certain that without the joy and overflowing spirits of youth this whole business of living would be so sober as to be often dreary. But with most of us these feelings are vague and inarticulate. It is because Miss Addams has so large and sane a vision for the real values of human life, penetrates with such intimate sympathy into the various springs of boy and girl nature, and knows so thoroughly the actual conditions of the modern city as they exist for boys and girls, that she has written such a significant book. Because of its style, of the humor and pathos of its numerous concrete examples, no less than for the weight of its subject-matter, it is likely to take its place among educational classics. Its six chapters may be read in an evening, but, read once, they are likely to be re-read several times.

The first chapter outlines the general situation which the modern city presents: "Industrialism has gathered together eager young creatures from all quarters of the earth as a labor supply"; numbers of young girls suddenly released from the protection of the home; numbers of young boys earning money independently of the family life, and feeling free to spend it as they choose in the midst of vice deliberately disguised as pleasure. To these boys and girls from the age of fourteen, when most leave school, on to the time when business or independent home life furnish normally sufficient interests, the city offers on the one hand the monotonous labor of factory or shop, on the other the commercialized forms of recreation in dance halls, "places," and nickel theaters. Successive chapters on "The Wrecked Foundations of Domesticity," "The Quest for Adventure," "The House of Dreams," "Youth in Industry," and "The Thirst for Righteousness," deal more specifically with the impulses and emotions which are most in need of guidance.

Youth is the time for friendship and love; it is eager for adventure, and the court records cited show how many boys get into trouble for lack of any innocent outlet; it needs recreation, especially after the monotonous rigor of modern machine industry, and our cheap theaters offer almost the only way

of meeting this need; industry itself is so conducted and education lends so little human significance to the factory processes that artistic and human interest revolts; finally, and perhaps oftener than we realize, the spirit of youth has a "divine impatience with the world's inheritance of wrong and injustice" which we allow to grow cold or even to take unsocial forms because of failure to enlist it in active campaigns for needed improvements.

The teacher who has any interest in the larger meaning of his work will find stimulation; the teacher who takes up the book primarily for its interpretation of boy and girl life will be likely to gain more insight and sympathy.

J. H. TUFTS

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Development of School Support in Colonial Massachusetts. By GEORGE LEROY JACKSON. [Teachers' College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 25.] New York, 1909. Pp. 95.

Dr. Jackson has collected and discussed in this monograph numerous documents concerning school support in thirty Massachusetts towns which were settled or incorporated between 1620 and 1738. The documents, nearly all of which are earlier than 1738, are taken from town histories, published town records, and published records and laws of Massachusetts Bay Colony. Many of them have been cited in other historical studies, and others are well known to students of our colonial history, but no one has before brought together so extensive a collection bearing on the single topic under discussion. Much still remains to be done in this field, since Dr. Jackson's study includes less than one-fourth of the towns incorporated before 1738.

The general facts concerning school support during this period were briefly set forth sixteen years ago in Martin's *Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*. Dr. Jackson makes no important modification of Martin's conclusions, but he treats the subject in much greater detail and supplies many more illustrations from the documents. He also introduces a new element into the discussion, in considering the relation of school support to the support of the church and of the poor.

As is well known, the educational law of 1647 marked an epoch in Massachusetts school policy. This law directed the establishment of elementary schools in towns of fifty families, and of grammar (college preparatory) schools in towns of one hundred families. Elementary education had been made compulsory in 1642, but the law of 1647 first made schools compulsory. The law also first explicitly made general taxation for school support permissive. Few towns of the group under consideration adopted general taxation as the exclusive method of support, however, until the eighteenth century. The taxes (town rates) levied before 1700 were almost always used to supplement tuition fees, contributions, incomes from bequests, rental from town lands, set apart for the purpose, or some combination of these resources. "But the conditions in New England tended to make the schools everywhere, sooner or later, wholly free and supported by tax. . . . Each locality worked out its own problem in its own way," but by the middle of the eighteenth century all had adopted the method

of general taxation (Martin, p. 52). Dr. Jackson illustrates this development admirably by detailed citations from the records of twenty-one towns. In this connection he brings out an interesting coincidence between the establishment of moving, or of divided, schools—which equalized educational opportunities for children in all parts of the town—and the adoption of a general school tax—which equalized the burden—as the sole method of support.

Dr. Jackson is less successful in his attempt to prove his theory that before the law of 1647, which made the school tax permissive, there was "a period of voluntary contribution followed by a period of compulsory contribution." The documents, he admits, do not establish the fact; but he points to the development of the support of the poor in England through the stages of voluntary and compulsory contribution to that of general taxation in 1601, and he attempts, not very convincingly, to trace a similar development in the support of the church in Massachusetts by 1660. Education, he concludes, is closely related to the church and the poor; hence the support of the schools may be assumed to have passed through identical (note that they were not chronologically identical) stages by 1647.

The defects in this argument are obvious, quite apart from the evidence. The evidence itself—in part unnoticed by Dr. Jackson—seems to me to favor the more natural view that the early colonists, in solving the problem of school support, followed methods already in vogue in English schools, instead of turning to English methods of supporting the poor forty years earlier, or of following a not clearly defined evolution in church support in the Colony. In English schools before 1630, we find—among other methods—support by voluntary contributions, by tuition fees, by town funds, by the income of school lands set apart for the purpose, and by bequests. There may have been cases of support by compulsory contributions. Each of these methods appears in one town or another of the Colony before 1647. The variety of these methods makes division into periods of voluntary and compulsory contribution arbitrary at best; but I find no evidence, in the documents, of such a division. The facts seem to be that each town worked out its own problem in its own way and that a variety of practices existed as soon as even half a dozen schools were established.

ARTHUR O. NORTON

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Schularztthätigkeit und Schulgesundheitspflege. Von G. LEUBUSCHER. Leipzig und Berlin: Teubner, 1907. M.1.20.

Leubuscher, who is the government health-officer of the Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, Germany, presents in this booklet a survey of the various points of contact between the work of the school physician and the problems of school hygiene, with special reference to conditions in his own district. This duchy was the first German state (1901) to provide official school physicians for all the schools within its borders, and the author, in his official capacity, reviews the work of his corps of physicians, points out in what respects the work has succeeded, in what it has failed, and how the service might be improved. He argues that medical inspection in small towns and villages presents problems quite unlike those arising in large towns and cities. In the latter there should

be professional school physicians, and for their training the medical schools should offer special post-graduate courses. In the country districts it is perhaps best to appoint a local physician, who shall give a portion only of his time to school inspection, and who shall be aided, if necessary, by specialists, e.g., dentists, oculists, etc.

In Saxe-Meiningen two visits a year to each school have proved adequate. It is hoped that each child shall be examined once in four years.

Leubuscher sees clearly, as we have seen in this country, that the mere collection of statistics of defect is not the end of medical inspection. The school authorities and the school physicians must unite in an endeavor to bring about real improvement in the health of the pupils. Much depends upon the intelligence of the populace and the accessibility of professional treatment. Particular emphasis is laid, and rightly, upon the value of parents' meetings, addressed by the school physician. Specimen programs of these meetings are given. Every possible device must be utilized to educate the public in the need of good health and the methods of its attainment.

Following this introductory discussion, the author presents the general results of the work of his corps of school inspectors. He treats of myopia, defective hearing, tuberculosis, goiter, rupture, pediculosis, spinal curvature, defective teeth, feeble-mindedness, and alcoholism—incidentally discussing the place of school baths, dental clinics, and the cleaning of the school building.

The discussion of tuberculosis and of alcoholism are perhaps of most interest to American readers. With reference to the former, the author states his belief that the striking reduction in the death-rate from tuberculosis has been effected largely in the mortality of adults, not in that of school children. Nevertheless, lung tuberculosis is relatively rare in school children, and there exists but little danger of its spread in the schoolroom. The gist of the tuberculosis problem lies rather in the problem of stamping out the possibility of contracting and fostering the disease in domestic and industrial life. If unquestioned cases of tuberculosis are discovered in the school, they should unhesitatingly be excluded and sent to sanitariums for complete rest and therapeutic treatment. Popular lectures on tuberculosis should be given to the public by the school physicians, and most stringent measures should be taken to fight dust in the schoolroom. Coats of oil applied three or four times a year are recommended to reduce the amount of floating dust.

With reference to the consumption of alcohol by school children, the statistics that Leubuscher presents cannot fail to startle American readers. Roughly speaking, less than 10 per cent of the school children examined are total abstainers, and perhaps 50 per cent use alcohol in some form more or less regularly. The author feels that temperance instruction as practiced in many school systems in the United States has far overshot the mark, and that it is very doubtful whether small quantities of alcohol affect an adult injuriously; but he feels equally sure that total abstinence is the safest course for children, and he urges, accordingly, an active campaign against the practice of beer and brandy drinking on the part of children. He advocates specific temperance instruction, one hour a month, arranged in a series of ten lessons a year—this to be supplemented by talks by the school physicians before the parents' meetings above mentioned.

The book closes with a brief discussion of the value of "first-aid to the injured" talks, and of the best plan of giving instruction in sex hygiene. Leubuscher steers a middle course: he has no sympathy with those who argue that the school has no business to treat the sex problem, or with those who argue that instruction in "sexology" is likely to excite premature sex development; neither does he indorse such extreme proposals as those of Maria Lischnewska, which, he says, leave scarcely anything to be pictured or described but the human sex act itself. His idea is that the school physicians should give an explanatory talk to pupils just before they are ready to leave the school (e.g., in the *Volkschule* just before graduation from the continuation-school, or in the higher schools just after the *Abiturientenexamen*). These talks should explain the development of the sex organs, the dangers of excessive or premature sex activity, and the dangers of venereal diseases.

GUY MONTROSE WHIPPLE

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Grundfragen der Schulorganisation. VON GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig: Teubner, 1910. Pp. vii+296. Geh. M.3.60, geb. M.4.20.

Der Begriff der staatsbürgerlichen Erziehung. VON GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER. Leipzig: Teubner, 1910. Pp. vii+62. Geh. M.1.00, geb. M.1.40.

In the *School Review* for March, 1908, appeared an article entitled "A German Contribution to Education for Vocation and Citizenship." The occasion for this was the publication of the first edition of Dr. Kerschensteiner's *Grundfragen der Schulorganisation*. This work gave to the public a statement of the general scheme of education lying back of that very significant development of continuation schools in Munich which first came prominently to the notice of Americans in the article by Professor Hanus in the *School Review* for November, 1905.

This second edition has been rewritten and simplified in many of its sections, many statistics for the years 1908 and 1909 have been added, and two notable addresses included. The first of these deals with "The Problem of the Education of the People." This replaces the section entitled "The Period between School and Military Service." The second is called "The School of the Future a School of Work." This was delivered at Zurich, at the Pestalozzi Celebration in 1908.

In these addresses Dr. Kerschensteiner shows that he has begun to come under the influence of Dr. Dewey. In the second book, *The Conception of Civic Education*, this development is even more evident, and in the preface is a hearty acknowledgment of the service rendered to his system of thought by *The School and Society*, *Moral Principles in Education*, *The Educational Situation*, and *The Child and the Curriculum*.

Dr. Kerschensteiner plans to visit America this fall. His criticism of our present movements will be of especial value on account of his clear understanding of, and sympathy with, the best ideals in American schools.

The System in German Schools. By E. GEORGE PAYNE. Frankfort: The Kentucky Department of Education, 1909. Pp. 75.

This bulletin of October, 1909, is the by-product of two years' study in Germany under authorization from the governor of Kentucky. The author's somewhat miscellaneous notes are organized with reference to elementary education, method of instruction, industrial schools, training of teachers, etc. There is a constant reference to the special needs of Kentucky schools, which are rather unmercifully scored, as, for that matter, are American schools in general. One questions the author's judgments when some of his statements are read. For instance, he tells of a young woman who planned to make her entire preparation to teach German in "one of the leading high schools" in Kentucky by spending six weeks on the subject at a summer school. Then he says, "I insist that 90 per cent of those attempting to teach the modern languages in the American schools, especially in the Kentucky schools, do not perform better work than this lady did in first-year German."

There are a number of good suggestions, as in the accounts of the "Mannheim special class system" and the continuation schools, but frequent overstatement, inadequate proofreading, and inconsistent capitalization obscure the good features. It is by no means so impossible to find poor teaching in Germany as Dr. Payne seems to think it is, nor is German thoroughness so extensive and so successful as he considers it to be. Germany can teach us much in these and other matters, but I fear that the present bulletin will not aid her greatly in doing so.

FRANK A. MANNY

KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

Elements of German. A Practical Course for Beginners in German. By HENRIETTA K. BECKER AND LEWIS A. RHOADES. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1909. Pp. 332.

There can be no doubt that the new edition of Becker's *Elements of German*, which appears under the title of *Becker-Rhoades Elements of German*, is a great improvement over the first edition. The German is more idiomatic, the more difficult stories are left out, and the grammatical notes are more concise.

The underlying principle of pedagogy, to extract the grammatical rules from the German story and to bring the verb to the very front, is better employed in this grammar than in any other which has lately appeared. But a drawback is the vocabulary, which is too large and too difficult for the high schools and too impractical for the colleges. Grammars should not be written in such a way as to attempt to serve the high schools and the colleges at the same time. We must come to the point where one grammar is written for the high schools and another for the colleges.

Foundations of German. By C. F. KAYSER AND F. MONTESER. New York: American Book Company, 1909. Pp. 224. \$0.80.

This grammar follows the plan of an older book by the same authors, although it is in reality a new book. The arrangement is not so good as in Becker and Rhoades, but the vocabulary is better selected and highly com-

mendable. The rules are clear and concise. But why are here again disconnected sentences so often employed, and why this old-fashioned grammar review?

HANS E. GRONOW

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Die höhere Mädchenbildung. Vorträge gehalten auf dem Kongress zu Kassel am 11. und 12. Oktober, 1907, von HELENE LANGE, PAULA SCHLODTMANN, LINA HILGER, LYDIA STÖCKER, JULIE VON KÄSTNER, MARIANNE WEBER, GERTRUD BÄUMER, UND MARIE MARTIN. Leipzig: Teubner, 1908. Pp. 97. M.1.80 geh., M.2.40 geb.

In Germany higher education for girls in recent years has become a vital problem, which not only interests the professional workers in the field but has developed to such an important national question that it is a topic of discussion in almost every circle. Prussia has recently made considerable reforms in secondary schools for girls—favorable changes due largely to the indefatigable labor of a number of German women who for more than thirty years have devoted their time and effort to educational and cultural questions, which have become more and more pressing. Out of a population of 61,720,529 in 1907, 31,259,429 were women, and of these 9,492,881, or 30.37 per cent, were self-supporting. This means a large number of women in vocations requiring education gained in secondary schools or universities, and many interesting problems have arisen in regard to the aims of education for girls as well as in regard to the more formal questions of the curriculum and school organization.

The addresses contained in this volume formed the basis for the discussions and resolutions of the congress for the higher education of women held at Cassel in October, 1907, and they are all the more valuable since they may be looked upon as summing up the opinions of the German women on reforms largely concerning their own sex. The most prominent representatives of the different ideals and opinions discuss some of the more important phases of the problems in question, in these papers of Helene Lange on higher schools for girls, Paula Schlodtmann on preparation for the university, Lina Hilger and Lydia Stöcker on a new feature of the German secondary schools, the so-called "Frauenschool," Julie von Kästner on the continuation of studies, Marianne Weber on co-education, Gertrud Bäumer on the teaching-force of the higher schools for girls, and Marie Martin on the place this type of school should take in the whole educational system. The contents of these papers convince us that the modern German women consider it their foremost duty to work seriously and intellectually on the problems of higher education for girls and that they have come to some definite results. They have evolved and defined a new ideal of a German woman, a new ideal of culture and education, and have pointed out the best way to reach it under existing circumstances. Nobody who is interested in higher education for girls should fail to read this little book.

USTA C. HAGEN

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Emergencies. Book II. By CHARLOTTE VETTER GULICK. "The Gulick Hygiene Series." Boston: Ginn & Co., 1909. Pp. 174. \$0.40.

The plan of this little manual on emergencies is radically different from any heretofore published. The author secured from a clipping bureau newspaper accounts of accidents to children during a period of nine months. The treatment of the various topics is, therefore, based on concrete cases, and not on theory, nor a compilation of material in other first-aid books. The clear and interesting presentation of accidents that really happened, with simple directions for avoiding such accidents, and also what to do if they happen, makes this book intensely practical. The book is very well illustrated with many pictures from original photographs.

Hygiene for Young People. By A. P. KNIGHT. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1909. Pp. 204. \$0.50.

This is one of the first books for young people in which hygiene is treated exclusively of anatomy and physiology. There is undoubtedly a need in the schools for more emphasis upon personal and community hygiene and less upon anatomy, but it is not well to separate hygiene from physiology in books for young children. This book would be much better if the laws of hygienic living were given in their relation to concrete facts taken from the everyday experiences of young children. The value of this volume is lessened by the lack of topical headings and good illustrations; also by the use of many Canadian terms and expressions not familiar to American children.

Health Studies, Applied Physiology and Hygiene. By ERNEST BRYANT HOAG. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1909. Pp. 221. \$0.75.

This volume exemplifies the best of the new methods of teaching physiology and hygiene to school children. The author has succeeded very well in presenting all the essential facts of hygienic living with just enough physiology and anatomy for an intelligent application of hygienic principles. The arrangement, treatment, and illustrations are admirable. Lists of questions on the subject-matter of each chapter, a bibliography of publications on physiology and health topics, and reading references grouped by subjects will prove very helpful to teachers. Books like this will bring much-needed improvement in the teaching of physiology and hygiene in elementary schools.

GEORGE L. MEYLAN

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

- The Education of Women.* By MARION TALBOT. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1910. Pp. ix+255. \$1.37 postpaid.
- Die Entwicklung des Kampfes gegen das Gymnasium.* Von GUSTAV UHLIG. Wien: Karl Fromme, 1910. Pp. 24.
- French Secondary Schools: An Account of the Origin, Development, and Present Organization of Secondary Education in France.* By FREDERIC ERNEST FARRINGTON. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1910. Pp. xiii+450.

ENGLISH

- American Public Addresses.* Edited by JOSEPH VILLIERS DENNEY. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1910. Pp. viii+325.
- Southern Orators. Speeches and Orations.* Selected and edited by JOSEPH MOORE MCCONNELL. ("Macmillan's Pocket Classics.") New York: Macmillan, 1910. Pp. liii+351. With a portrait. \$0.25.
- Three American Poems: Poe's Raven, Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish, and Whittier's Snow-Bound.* Edited for School Use by GARLAND GREEVER. ("The Lake English Classics.") Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1910. Pp. 154.

HYGIENE, GARDENING, AND PLAY

- The Body and Its Defenders.* By FRANCES GULICK JEWETT. ("The Gulick Hygiene Series," edited by LUTHER HALSEY GULICK.) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. viii+342. Illustrated. \$0.65.
- Among School Gardens.* By M. LOUISE GREENE. (Russell Sage Foundation.) New York: Charities Publication Committee, 1910. Pp. xv+388. With many illustrations. \$1.25.
- Play. Comprising Games for the Kindergarten, Playground, Schoolroom, and College, How to Coach and Play Girls' Basket-Ball, etc.* By EMMETT DUNN ANGELL. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1910. Pp. xxvii+190. With many illustrations. \$1.50 net.

MATHEMATICS

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Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

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¹ Abbreviations.—*Amer. Educa.*, American Education; *Cent.*, Century Magazine; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Good Housekeep.*, Good Housekeeping; *Journ. of Educa. (Bost.)*, Journal of Education (Boston); *Journ. of Educa. (Lond.)*, Journal of Education (London); *Journ. of Geog.*, Journal of Geography; *Kind-Prim. Mag.*, The Kindergarten-Primary Magazine; *Kind. R.*, Kindergarten Review; *Lib. Journ.*, Library Journal; *Man. Train. Mag.*, Manual Training Magazine; *New Eng. Mag.*, New England Magazine; *Out.*, Outlook; *Pedagog. Sem.*, Pedagogical Seminary; *Pop. Educa.*, Popular Educator; *Relig. Educa.*, Religious Education; *School W.*, School World; *Sci. Amer.*, Scientific American; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, Teachers College Record; *West. Journ. of Educa.*, Western Journal of Education.

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